





MACMILLAN'S
NEW HISTORY READERS

SENIOR

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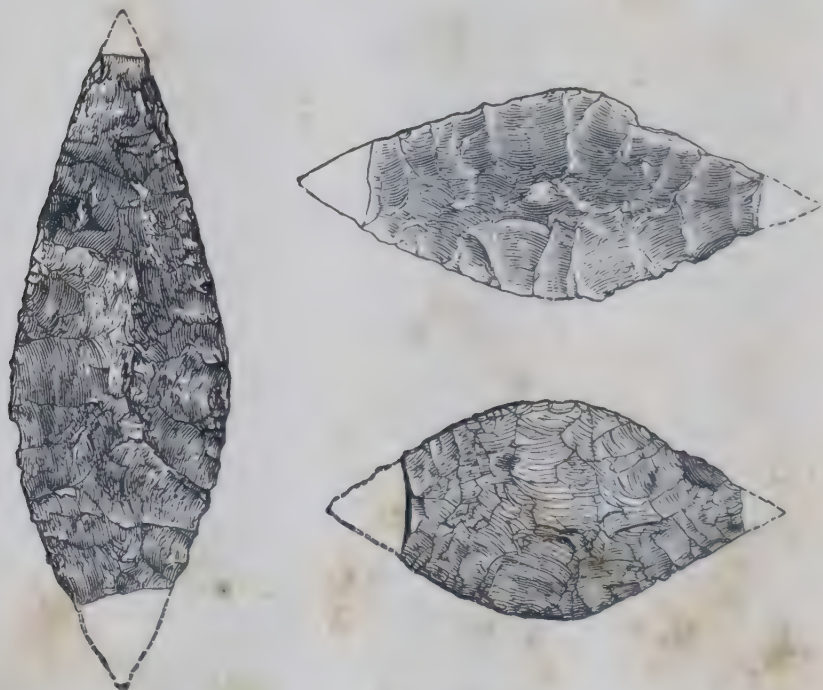
CHAPTER I.

EARLY BRITAIN AND ITS PEOPLE.

THE first dwellers in Britain lived in caves or in trees or in rude huts made of boughs. In those far-off days Britain formed part of a continent stretching far into Northern and Western Seas. Its climate was cold and wet ; a short, warm summer was succeeded by a long winter. Heavy and constant mist hung over the stagnant fens and woods, but the men enjoyed the hunting and fishing by which they lived. They learned to fashion the flints into axe, spear, and arrow-heads ; they invented the bow ; they made their knives of flakes of flints, and after a time they fitted these weapons into rude handles of horn and bone.

For covering, they wore skins roughly sewn together with sinews. They could make the fire by which they

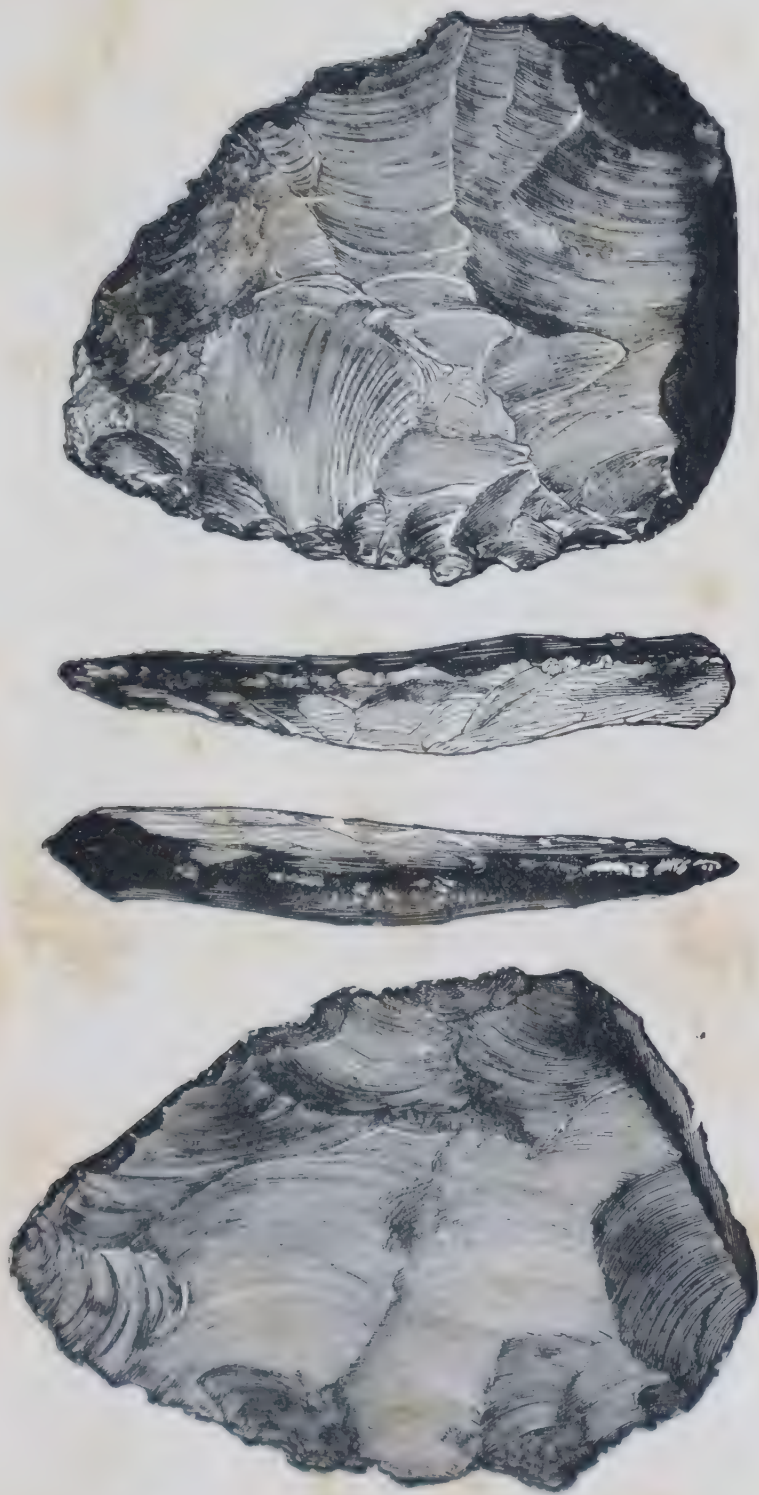
cooked the beasts they slew, but they had no domestic animals. These early dwellers in Britain hunted the stag, the reindeer, the hairy mammoth, and the bison ; and, besides these animals, there roamed in the forests the cave-lion and hyaena, the brown and the grizzly



FLINT ARROW-HEADS.

bear, the rhinoceros and the elephant, the elk and the great urus.

No one can tell how long this people lasted, but there came a time when the land had risen and was divided from Europe by the Channel. Then appeared a new race of people, who are often said to belong to the Stone Age, and whose remains we find in caves, in tombs, and in lake-dwellings : the more savage animals had disappeared, but the stag, the reindeer, and the



FLINT IMPLEMENTS, WOOKEY HOLE, NEAR WELLS.

bear remained among the mountain valleys and the northern moors. The wild boar, the wolf, the fox, and the wild cat haunted in vast numbers the thick, dark, monstrous woods.

The climate became warmer and more damp; and the lowlands were half water, consisting of wide-spreading fens, swamps, and lakes. The estuaries, like that of the Thames, opened out into miles of morass and sand; and the mountains were bare and inaccessible. Now, where did the people dwell? They made their homes along the coast where the fens did not encroach, by the river channels, and on the low, dry downs. In these places there lived and hunted a short, black-haired, dark-skinned, dark-eyed race, who had with them some domestic animals.

This people used weapons of bone and flint: they wore a rude cloth for garments, and made pottery and ornaments. Sometimes they buried their dead in caves, but they came to bury them in tombs under large mounds of earth, lined with stones. A great number of standing stones and stone circles may be found over our land from Dorset to Caithness, and they prove that this people occupied the whole country.

This people of the Stone Age were conquered by a new race from Europe, who were called Iberians. They were warriors and hunters, and their weapons of battle and chase were at first of stone, shaped with much skill, and highly polished. But when they came to our land they had learned how to make bronze weapons, and so are the first men of the Bronze Age in our country. They were more than warriors and hunters, for they carried on commerce

with the Continent, and they kept flocks and herds. They set up temples like Stonehenge, and they built



DRINKING CUP ($\frac{1}{2}$ scale) EAST KENNET.

large underground tombs. They decorated their persons with gold and silver ornaments, and with necklaces of amber, jet, and glass. They wore a woven cloth, and made vases, cups, and food dishes of good pottery.

How long these early races lived in Britain we cannot say, but we believe that several centuries before the Christian Era there passed into our land two swarms of Celts, the people whom the Romans found in possession, when they conquered our country. The first swarm to come were the Goidels, but after a time the Brythons arrived and settled in Kent and round the mouth of the Thames.

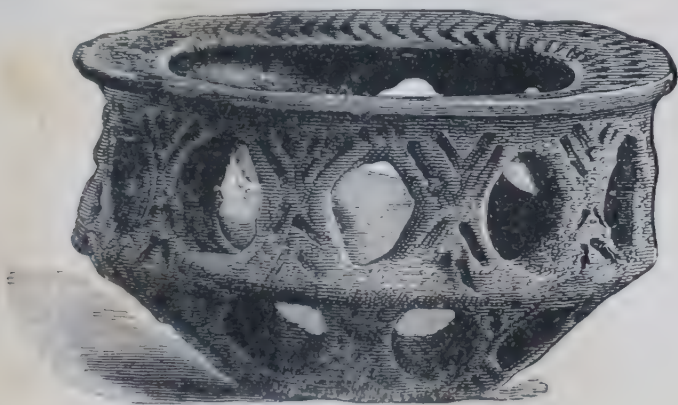
The Brythons pushed steadily on, and the whole country, with a few exceptions, fell under their sway. The Goidels retreated before their advance, and found a refuge for a time in Cornwall, Wales, Cumberland and Westmoreland, and then in Scotland and in Ireland. In the end, however, the Goidels and Brythons mixed together, and spoke the Brythonic tongue.

Before the time of Caesar, history is almost silent with regard to Britain. But there was one traveller, Pytheas, who lived and wrote about 330 B.C., and he tells us about the Cornish miners bringing their tin to the coast and exchanging it for goods with the Gauls of Europe. Pytheas came twice to our island, and found the inhabitants on the south-east coast fairly civilised. From other writers we learn that the Britons exported corn, cattle, gold, silver, iron, skins, slaves, and dogs; and they imported ivory bracelets and necklaces, beads of amber, and vessels of glass. Caesar speaks of the tin of Britain, and mentions copper as one of the British imports.

South-eastern and south-western Britain were thus somewhat civilised when Caesar came over; but, in the interior, the men were wild and lived by hunting

and fighting. They grew no corn, were clad in skins, and painted themselves for love and war.

Let us picture to ourselves what Britain was like when the Romans landed on its shores. By far the greater portion was uninhabitable, and was a desolation of extensive forest and bleak moorlands. Much of the interior was unexplored, and over it ranged wolves, bears, wild swine, and black cattle. Beavers built their dams across the rivers; and hosts of such



INCENSE CUP ($\frac{2}{3}$ scale) BULFORD, WILTS.

animals as the fox, the weasel, the badger, the otter, and the wild cat devoured one another. Enormous flocks of land and water-birds hunted their prey in the woods and over the wide-spread marshes.

It was to this inhospitable land that the Romans came, and it is with the advent of this great people that we begin to know something definite about our country. Before their invasion, much of our information is based on conjecture, but from 55 B.C. we have a basis of fact upon which to build. Caesar himself was a great writer, and we can turn to him for an account of his own campaigns in Britain, Gaul, and elsewhere.

CHAPTER II.

THE ROMAN CONQUEST OF BRITAIN.

WE date the commencement of our national history from the landing of Caesar in Britain. This is one of the great events in the life of the nation, which renders every particular not only interesting but important. From 55 B.C. to 410 A.D. Britain was more or less under the Romans, and it is to that conquering people that Britain advanced from a state of barbarism into a condition of civilisation.

The Romans at that period had a mighty empire, and the capital, Rome, was one of the greatest cities of the world. Its sons were renowned in literature and art, and were skilled in all kinds of warfare. No task seemed too difficult for its legions of highly-trained soldiers, who were led by some of the master-generals of the world.

Before landing in Britain, Caesar had conquered Gaul, a country which included our present France and Belgium, and brought it under the rule of Rome. In the course of his conquest he learned that to the west of Gaul lay an island named Britain, whose people were mainly of the same race as those of Gaul. Caesar also knew that the Britons had given the Gauls help in their struggles against the Roman armies.

Caesar resolved, therefore, to invade Britain, and in two successive descents he landed on our shores, defeated the Britons, and penetrated beyond the Thames. No event in history is more memorable than this landing of Caesar, for the greatest man of

the Roman race made known to the world a land whose people were afterwards to become greater empire-builders than the Romans.

The final conquest of Britain was left to other Roman generals, for Caesar was recalled from Britain



CLAUDIUS, AGRIPPINA, LIVIA, AND TIBERIUS.

by risings in Gaul; and for a hundred years after his withdrawal the island does not seem to have been troubled by the Romans.

It was not till the time of the Emperor Claudius that the conquest of Britain was again undertaken: and a war which only ended under the Emperor

Domitian at last brought all the southern part of the island under the rule of Rome. It is not necessary to go into details and recount the battles between the Romans and the Britons. It is sufficient to note that the Britons fought bravely, under such leaders as Caractacus, Cassivellaunus, and Boadicea; and although they gained some successes, they were no match for the highly-organised and disciplined legions of the Romans led by Vespasian, Agricola, and Suetonius.

What most concerns us is to remember the work of the Romans in civilising the Britons and raising Britain to a high position. Britain remained a province of the Roman Empire for more than three hundred years, and during that time our land was far more flourishing, both in home and foreign trade, than it was for centuries afterwards.

During this time the British tribes were reduced to order, towns were built, roads were made from one end of the land to the other, mines were opened, and London grew into one of the great ports of the world. The Romans drained the marshes, cut down forests, improved agriculture, and introduced a thorough political system, which gave a settled form to the life of the Britons.

British resources were thus developed, and at the beginning of the Christian Era we learn about our trade from the geographer Strabo, and we find that our imports were of a most varied character, and included a large number of articles of luxury, such as ivory, bridles, gold ornaments, drinking vessels, and so forth. Besides exporting lead and tin, corn became a very important export, and in 359 A.D. no less than

five vessels were sent from Britain with corn to succour the Roman colonies on the Rhine which had been plundered. Other writers mention oysters, pearls, and jet as coming from Britain.

Under the Romans the export of metals became more important than formerly, for the Romans worked the mines to a greater depth than had been hitherto attempted. Many relics of their efforts remain to this day. In the British Museum may be seen several pigs of lead stamped with the Roman mark : and blocks of tin with Latin inscriptions have also been found in the old tin mines and stream works of Cornwall.

The Romans have left their mark on all parts of our land, and evidences of their work are constantly coming to light. Pottery and coins, altars and pavements, are frequently unearthed ; and in museums in many of our towns these tokens of the Roman skill are to be seen.

But during these three centuries, Britain was wasted from time to time by inroads of the wild tribes of North Britain, which had not been conquered by the Romans. The attacks of the Picts and Scots grew more formidable as the power of Rome grew weaker : for the Roman Empire was tottering to its fall. It was beset on every side by fierce attacks from the barbarians of Northern Europe ; and, at last, the Empire was forced to withdraw its troops from Britain and leave our land to defend itself against its foes.

We may date the final departure of the Romans from Britain in 410 A.D. Then the Britons called in bands of soldiers from northern Germany to help them

against their foes. These Jutes and Saxons and Angles gradually grew into a host of invaders, and became in time a danger to Britain. These were our forefathers, the first Englishmen who set foot in Britain, and about them we shall read in the next chapter.

CHAPTER III.

EARLY ENGLISHMEN AND THEIR FIRST HOME.

IN the year 449 a band of warriors was drawn to the shores of Britain by the pledges of land and pay, if they would assist the Britons to repel the invasions of the Picts and Scots. The warriors were Jutes, men of a tribe which has left its name in Jutland, at the extremity of the Danish peninsula. In three keels and with their leaders, Hengest and Horsa, at their head, these Jutes landed at Ebbfleet in the Isle of Thanet. It is with the landing of Hengest and his host that English history really begins: and from the hour when they set foot on the sands of Thanet, we follow the story of Englishmen in the land they afterwards made their own.

For the fatherland of the English race we must, however, look far away from England itself. In the fifth century after the birth of Christ there was a country called Angeln or England, which lay within the district now called Sleswick, or in the heart of the peninsula that parts the Baltic from the northern seas.

Sleswick is now a country of pleasant pastures, black-timbered homesteads, and prim little townships, looking down on inlets of purple water. Then it was but a wild waste of heather and sand, girt along the



SHIELD BEFORE A.D. 450 (Jutish or Danish).
Worsaae, "Industrial Arts of Denmark."

coast with a sunless woodland, which was broken here and there by meadows that crept down to the marshes and the sea.

The Engle or English folk who dwelt in this district were only a part of the race, for on one and the other side of them lived the Saxons, and north of them lay another kindred tribe, the Jutes. Engle, Saxon, and Jute all belonged to the same branch of

the Teutonic family ; and when they are first heard of they were united by the ties of common blood, common speech, and common institutions.



OLD ENGLISH GLASS VESSELS. Akerman, "Pagan Saxondom."

It would not be quite right to say that the three tribes looked on themselves as one people, or that we could give them at this early period the common name of Englishmen. But each of them had its share in the conquest of the land in which we now live ; and it is from the union of all of them, when its conquest was complete, that the English people have sprung.

It will be well to picture to ourselves something of the life of this people when they dwelt in their own land on the Continent. Although they were busy tillers and hardy fishers, these Englishmen were, at heart, fighters; and their world was a world of war. Tribe warred with tribe, and village with village; even within the township, household fought with household, and passions of hatred and vengeance were handed on from father to son.



OLD ENGLISH BRONZE PATERA. Akerman, "Pagan Saxondom."

They were essentially a set of fighting men, and withal, venturesome, self-reliant, and proud: yet they were ennobled by the virtues that spring from war. They showed personal courage and loyalty to their leaders, and exhibited in their lives a high sense of manhood and the worth of man.

A grim joy in hard-fighting was the leading characteristic of this people. War was the Englishman's "shield-play" and "sword-game": and his heart beat with a wild joy when he heard the song of the gleeman, who told of the rush of the host and the crash of its shield-line. Their arms and weapons, tall spear and javelin, sword and seax, the short broad dagger

that hung at each warrior's girdle, gathered to them much of the legend and the art which made their life worth living. Indeed, each sword had its name as if it were a living thing.

Next to their love of war came their love of the sea, and herein we see how our race has retained this love for fourteen centuries. The Englishman of the fifth century was as proud of his sea-craft as of his war-craft. With sword in teeth he would plunge into the sea to meet walrus and sea-lion; and he told of his whale chase amidst the icy waters of the north. His love for the sea may be gathered from the playful names he gave to his ship. His vessel was "the wave-floater," "the foam-necked," "like a bird" as it skimmed over the waves, or "like a swan" as it curved round some opening.

One of these war-keels has been preserved in a Sleswick peat-bog, and from it we can form a good idea of their vessels. This boat is flat-bottomed, seventy feet long, and eight or nine feet wide, its sides of oak boards being fastened with bark ropes and iron bolts. Fifty men drove it over the waves with a freight of warriors, whose arms, axes, swords, lances, and knives were found heaped together in its hold.

In rough weather such boats could only creep cautiously along from harbour to harbour; but, in smooth water, their swiftness fitted them admirably for the piracy by which the men of these tribes were making themselves dreaded. Its flat bottom enabled them to beach the vessel on any fitting coast; and a step on shore transformed the boatmen into a war-band.

A Roman poet of this time describes the swoop of these pirates and the fierceness of their onset in some striking words. This is what he says: "Foes are they, fierce beyond other foes, and cunning as they are fierce; the sea is their school of war, and the storm their friend; they are sea-wolves that prey on the pillage of the world!"



EARTHENWARE EWER (Scandinavian). Montelius.

As we have seen, the Britons asked these Jutes to aid them, but the Jutes soon became as great a danger as the Picts whom they had repulsed. Quarrels arose between the Jutes and the Britons, and then other bands of Jutes, Saxons, and Angles descended on the shores of Britain, and so began a work of conquest which made the land their own. The Britons fought hard for their land, but they were weakened by their own divisions; and so, in course of time, the Britons had to flee and seek refuge in the west. That is how

it is that the people of Wales and Cornwall are of a different race from the dwellers in the other part of England.

The fight between the Britons and the English did not really end till the close of the sixth century, and then it was found that the east of Britain had become



SILVER CUP (Danish). Montelius.

the land of Englishmen. But these Englishmen were broken up into many separate tribes, and were far from being as yet a single people. To bring about their union into one nation was the work of many hundred years; perhaps the first great step made in it was the binding all the English tribes together in one Christian religion.

At their first coming to our land, these English tribes were heathen, worshipping Woden and other

gods, from whom they believed their kings were descended. But the Britons were Christians : and thus the winning of Britain by the English had driven Christianity from the land. There came a time, however, as we shall find in the next chapter, when the true religion was again brought to our shores, and worked a great change in the lives of the English.

CHAPTER IV.

THE STORY OF ST. CUTHBERT, OR THE CONVERSION OF THE ENGLISH.

THE sixth century had almost reached its close when a band of missionaries from Rome landed in Kent. Gregory the Great had long cherished the hope of converting the heathen English, but it was not till 597 that Augustine and his companions commenced their work of teaching the true faith in our land. Their starting place was in Kent, because its king, Ethelbert, had married a Christian wife.

The story of Augustine and his labours has been so often told, and is so well known, that it is only necessary for us to remember that the work of conversion which began in Kent spread over Britain ; and before another hundred years had passed away, every English kingdom had become Christian. With Christianity returned much of that older knowledge and learning, which had been driven from the land by the English conquest. Schools were set up, and

Englishmen at last began to write both in Latin and in their own tongue.

But of course the chief influence of Christianity was the rapid change it made in the lives and habits of the English. The men who laboured in the mission field were simple, devoted men, who gave themselves entirely to their work. It would be a mistake to suppose that Christianity had entirely died out in the island of Britain, or that the Roman missionaries were the only agents at work. The fire of Christianity had been kept alive in some of the remote districts of Wales, Scotland, and Ireland: and, when the opportunity came, some of the most ardent missionaries were not Romans, but Celts. Aidan, Cuthbert, Chad, Columba, and many others all deserve mention for their labours in various parts of Britain. The story of their lives is full of interest, and if we had space, we could say much about all of them. Here, however, we can only venture to give the outline of the life of the great northern saint, Cuthbert, or, as he is generally known, St. Cuthbert.

His life lights up the period when the "old order was changing and giving place to new." In the early accounts of Cuthbert, he is said to have been the son of an Irish knight by an English mother. He was probably born about 639 A.D. in that district of ancient Northumbria which lies beyond the Tweed, on the southern side of the Lammermoor Hills. Cuthbert found shelter when eight years old in a widow's house in the little village of Wrangholm; and at that early age he was conspicuous for bodily vigour, and was famous for his high spirits and his skill in leaping, running, and wrestling.

Before long he became a shepherd, and kept his flocks in the hill country on the banks of the Leader. But at this period of his youth, his mind leaned



MONASTIC CELL.

Anderson, "Scotland in Early Christian Times."

toward solemn and serious thoughts. He saw visions and dreamed dreams. One night, as he was tending his sheep, he saw a light streaming down from heaven, and choirs of angels bearing away a soul of exceeding brightness to heaven. He awoke his companions,

telling them what he had seen, and shortly afterwards he learnt that the saintly Aidan had passed away that very night. This incident was the cause of his joining the monastic life, to which he ever after remained faithful.

He accordingly entered the monastery of old Melrose and was welcomed with the words, "Behold a servant of the Lord!" This was in 651 A.D., and the new comer was soon conspicuous for his devotion and energy. His work as a missionary was very difficult, for he not only had to win over the people from their heathen ways, but he had to sustain them in the Christian faith. He would go forth sometimes on foot, sometimes on horseback, and be absent from his monastery for weeks together. He would penetrate the wild valleys of Ettrick and Lammermoor, and preach in villages perched high up among craggy mountains.

We are told that so great was his skill in teaching, so vast his power of loving persuasion, such a brightness shone forth from his angelic countenance, that no one in his presence dared to conceal from him the hidden secrets of his soul. After a successful sojourn in the Lowlands of Scotland, Cuthbert removed to the monastery of Lindisfarne, of which he afterwards became the bishop. From this place also he went forth on his missionary journeys, visiting village after village, drawing men to him, and bidding them to seek the joys of heaven.

Cuthbert had unbounded trust in God. Once, we are told, he had wandered far with a youthful companion. Night came on, and they had nothing to eat.

“Where shall we lodge, and what shall we eat?” asked his companion. “Learn, my son,” replied Cuthbert, “to have faith and hope always in the Lord. No one who serves God faithfully can ever perish with hunger. Do you see yonder eagle overhead? God can feed us through its means if He will.” And then, the story says, the bird laid a fish on the bank, which Cuthbert bade the lad fetch and cut in two. One half they ate, and the other half was left for the eagle to eat, in return for its service to them.

On another occasion, when he was with some of the brethren in an open boat, a blinding snow-storm came on and drove them on the coast of Fife. “The snow closes our road along the shore,” mourned the comrades; “the storm bars our way over the sea.” “But,” said Cuthbert, “there is still the way of heaven that lies open.”

Cuthbert continued to labour till 686 A.D., and in that year he made a last tour of his diocese. Soon after Christmas of that year, he entered the boat which was to convey him from Lindisfarne to his cell. As he stepped into it, one of the brethren asked him when they should see him again: but Cuthbert sadly replied that the end of his life was near at hand.

In the following February his sickness increased, and he knew that he could not expect to linger long. He was unable to walk, so he bade the brethren carry him to his oratory. All day he lay calmly awaiting his great change, and gave his last charges. As the night wore on he continued in prayer, and at last passed away without a groan to the joys of the kingdom of heaven.



YORK MINSTER

A signal of his death had been agreed upon : and one of those who stood by ran with a candle in each hand to a place where the light might be seen by a monk, who was looking out from the watch-tower of Lindisfarne. As the tiny gleam flashed over the dark waters, and the watchman hurried with his news into the church, the brethren of Holy Island were singing the words of the Psalmist : " Thou hast cast us out and scattered us abroad : Thou hast also been displeased ; O turn Thee unto us again."

It was indeed a great blow to Northumbria, for at the period of Cuthbert's death, heathenism was again rearing its head for a time. But Northumbria had been won from heathendom to the Christian Church by the devotion of such men as Cuthbert, and its monasteries were the seats of learning in England. Northumbria was the first to gather together the various tribes of the English people, and for a century it stood at their head, teaching them the value of a national life.

Two of our earliest writings were the *Story of Beowulf* and Caedmon's *Paraphrase of the Bible*, both of which owe their origin to this northern kingdom. The first is the story of the deeds and death of a hero named Beowulf, which seems to have been brought into England from some Danish land, and to have been translated by some Christian poet of Northumbria. The first true English poem is that of Caedmon, which was also of Northumbrian origin. Thus the place of Northumbria, as one of the seats of learning and of Christianity, is very high in the annals of our land.

CHAPTER V.

ALFRED THE TRUTH-TELLER, OR THE
ROYAL BOOK-LOVER.

WE saw in the last chapter that the spread of Christianity in England was important, because it was the means of changing the lives of the people and in promoting a revival of learning. But Christianity brought with it a yet more important result in furthering the union of the small English tribes into a single English kingdom. We cannot say exactly how many divisions there were in England before the ninth century. There may have been seven or eight, sometimes more and sometimes less. These tribes were constantly warring the one with the other, but after long struggles they were all united under Egbert, king of the West-Saxons, who conquered the other English peoples, and so brought them under his rule.

Egbert's work, however, was soon undone, for some sea-rovers called Danes, from the Scandinavian lands, attacked all the western countries of Europe; and their heaviest attacks fell on Britain. They conquered all the northern, eastern, and central parts of the country; and not only broke the rule of the West-Saxon kings over the other States, but at last fell upon the West-Saxons themselves.

In 871 Alfred became king of the West-Saxons, and, for a time, he held the Danes bravely at bay; but at length he was forced to flee and hide in the marshes of Athelney. There he remained for

a few months: but at the end of the spring of 878 he surprised the Danes at Edington, and utterly defeated them. Peace was made with them at Wedmore, and the Danish leader, Guthrum, was allowed to settle in Eastern England.

The triumph of Alfred over Guthrum secured Wessex, or Southern England, from the Danes, and gave Alfred leisure to prepare for the re-conquest of the rest of the country. For this purpose he steadily got ready a new fleet and army, and took steps to fortify the towns.

But Alfred did much to gain the affections of his people by showing himself what a true and noble king should be, by living uprightly and ruling justly. He also endeavoured to restore to England the blessings of wise laws and good government, which seemed to have perished in the troubles of the time.

Alfred also strove earnestly to restore learning, which had suffered most of all: and in spite of overwhelming difficulties, he did so much, both by himself and through other scholars, that as English poetry is said to begin with Caedmon, so English prose may be said to look back for its beginning to Alfred.

It is very difficult for us to appreciate the literary worth of Alfred, or to realise the difficulties he had to encounter in his endeavours to promote the education of his people. He was a great book-lover, and found solace in the retirement of his library, where he could cast aside the cares of state. Having discovered for himself the value and companionship of books, he was anxious to give his subjects similar advantages.



AELFREDUS
MAGNUS.

*Ex antiquissima tabella in museo Marguerite
646. 1. 1. 1.*

Antiqua tabula

Moreover, Alfred saw that if his country was to be truly great, it must have the advantages of a national education. In his eyes it was not enough that Wessex should advance in material prosperity, or that it should be defended by a strong army and navy. These were all very well in their way ; but something more was necessary if his people were to continue to progress and take a high place as a wise and understanding people.

Now, Alfred's great desire was that the English should be educated so that there should be moral, spiritual, and intellectual development. He recognised that he must begin with the youth of the land, and so he desired that all the youth in England should so learn that they might "be well able to read English writing." So that this might be done, he built schools, and invited learned men from foreign countries to come over and teach his subjects. These men of wisdom became Alfred's chief friends, and from them he himself received much instruction.

From his earliest years he had devoted himself to learning ; but his great grief had ever been that he had not been able to settle down to the pleasures of the library, for the country had been in an unquiet state, and there were no teachers in all the land.

All the learned books in Alfred's day were in Latin, so Alfred decided that the first duty of a reformer was to translate some of the best and most useful of those books into the English tongue. His opinion as to the kind of learning needed by his people may be gathered from his choice of the books which he wished them to read in their own tongue.

First of all he was anxious that his people should have a good general knowledge of the history of the world, and also a particular knowledge of the history of their own country and race. For this purpose he chose the *History of Orosius*, a book which continued popular down to the sixteenth century.

Secondly, he determined to give them the best book on the philosophy of life, and so he translated the *Consolations of Philosophy* by Boethius. This translation of Alfred is also remarkable for the additions by the king: and we find in it wise thoughts on the conduct of life, besides many word-pictures and stories, some being of great interest.

Thirdly, he translated from the Latin, Bede's *History of the English Church*, a work of much value, and from which we gain a clear and picturesque idea of the state of England, from a religious point of view, in the early centuries. This book enabled his people to learn about the annals of their own country, and to know something of the deeds of their forefathers in making England a Christian country.

Lastly, he thought all the clergy should understand the principles of their religion, and to attain this end he put into English the *Pastoral Care* of Gregory. It is worthy of note that three copies of this book are still in existence, for Alfred ordered that every bishop in his kingdom was to have one of these books, and to keep it in a safe place. Besides these four books, Alfred did other literary work, but enough has been written to show that Alfred was a real book-lover, and that he had a high aim in life.

Alfred reigned over England about thirty years, and although he has been dead more than one thousand years, his memory is still cherished as England's "Darling." He is the one perfect English king, for of him nothing base or mean is recorded. He found England a prey to the Danes, and he left it strong and happy. He found its cities and churches and schools in ruins, and he rebuilt them. He found his people ignorant and stupid, and he trained and educated them, so that they took a high place among the peoples of Europe.

Alfred has many titles, but perhaps the grandest is that of the "Truth-teller," for so he was called by his friends, and in this title we have a clue to his success over the hearts of men. It is pleasant to think of Alfred as the lover of children and as the friend of the poor; it is inspiring to read of his thoroughness in all his work and his generosity to his enemies; but it is still better to think of Alfred as the man who never broke his word, and who thus is entitled to be called Alfred the Great. His constant desire was to live worthily while he lived, and so to leave to the men who should come after him a remembrance of his good works.

CHAPTER VI.

DUNSTAN, OR THE WORK OF A GREAT STATESMAN.

KING ALFRED died in 901, and he left the work of winning back England from the Danes to the kings

of his house who followed him. Edward the Elder, his son, and Athelstan, his grandson, did great deeds, and succeeded in extending their dominions. Edmund the Magnificent continued the work of re-conquest, and, before his murder in 946, he had gained the allegiance of Malcolm, king of the Scots, who promised to help the English king as well by sea as by land. The last great struggle was in the reign of King Eadred, who is called the "Caesar of all Britain," for it was in his time that the whole country was brought under West-Saxon rule.

The final settlement of the country was, however, really brought about by Dunstan, a very remarkable man, who was the friend and counsellor of King Eadred. Thus the completion of the settlement of the West-Saxon realm was reserved for the hands, not of a king or warrior, but of a priest. It will be interesting in this chapter to trace the rise and progress of Dunstan's career.

Dunstan was born in the little hamlet of Glastonbury, the home of his father, Heorstan, a man of wealth and influence. It was in his father's hall that the fair, little boy first caught his love for singing and the legends of his country. Here also he may have gained his passionate love of music, for it was his custom, in after years, to carry his harp in hand whenever he went on a journey or visit.

Irish scholars had left their books in the monastery of Glastonbury, and Dunstan plunged into the study of all kinds of subjects till his brain gave way under the strain. The news of Dunstan's wisdom spread and reached the court of Athelstan, whither he was

invited. But on his arrival, the courtiers were jealous of Dunstan, and drove him from the king's palace. It is recorded that their ill-will was so great that they



LADY CHAPEL, GLASTONBURY. Built 1184-1189.

threw him from his horse as he passed through the marshes, and then trampled him under foot in the mire.

This foul outrage caused a fever, and Dunstan rose from his sick-bed a monk. Yet Dunstan was a man full of strong affection, with a nature that was sunny and artistic. He was quick-witted, and had an excellent memory. Besides this he was a ready and fluent speaker, and an untiring worker at books, at

building, and at handicraft. So many were his interests in life, that he was followed by a train of pupils, busy with literature, writing, harping, painting, and designing.

But there was work of a higher kind for Dunstan, and when Edmund became king, in 940, the monk was invited to the king's court. The king gave him the kiss of peace, and then seated him in the abbot's chair as Abbot of Glastonbury. This was a post of great importance, and soon Dunstan became one of the king's counsellors and helped to bring about the settlement in the North. It was largely owing to Dunstan's efforts that Malcolm, king of the Scots, became a co-worker with Edmund, as we read at the beginning of this chapter.

The work of settlement was hindered for a time by the young king's death. As he feasted at Pucklechurch in the May of 946, Leofa, a robber whom Edmund had banished from his land, entered the hall, seated himself at the royal board, and drew sword on the cup-bearer when he bade him retire. Edmund sprang in wrath to the aid of his servant, and seizing Leofa by the hair, threw him to the ground; but, in the struggle, the dagger of the robber entered the heart of the king.

His death brought about fresh trouble, and the Danes rose against his brother and successor, Eadred. It took some years of hard fighting before the supremacy of the English was again acknowledged. But in 954 the work of conquest was done, and then the Northmen at last owned themselves beaten, and all resistance came to an end.

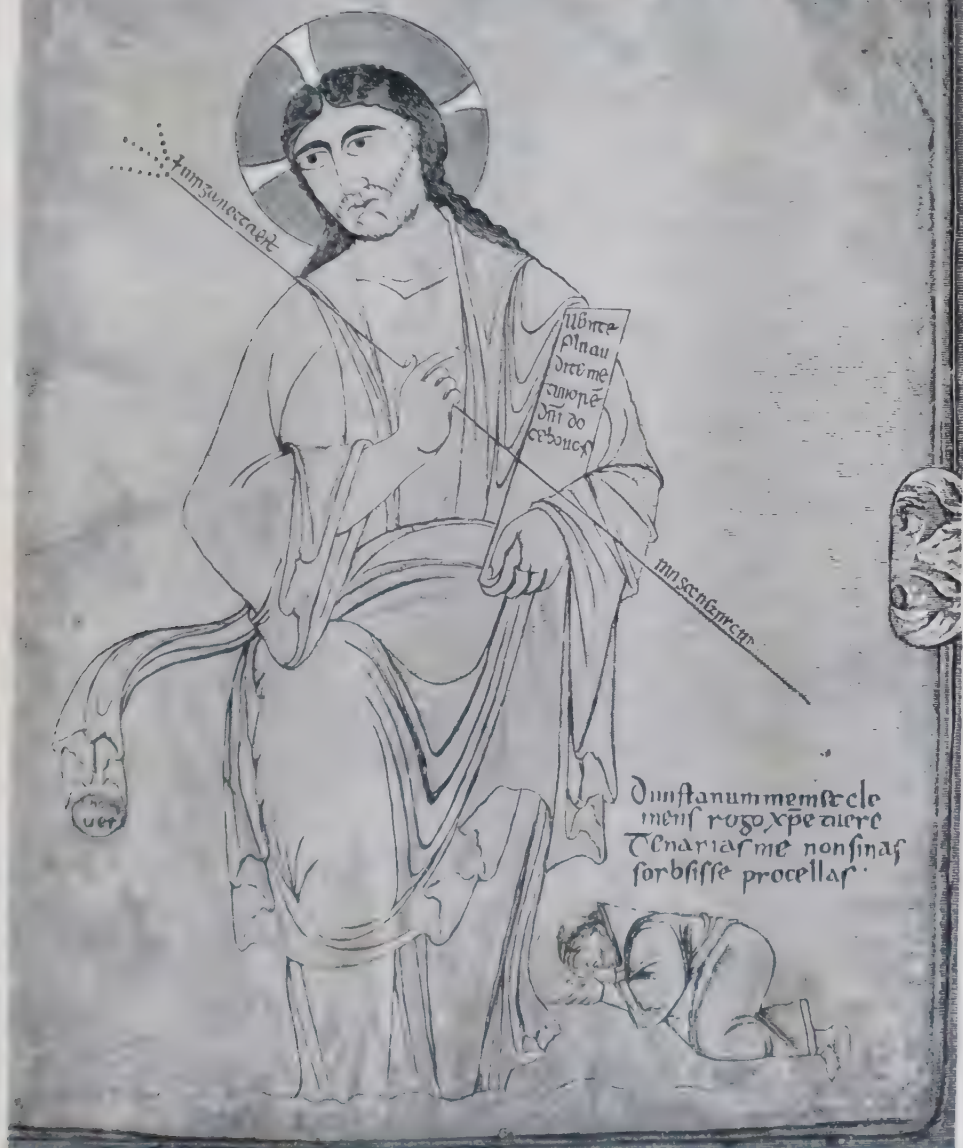
Eadred died in 955, and left the realm to his nephew, Edwy, who was a mere child. Edwy was influenced by a woman of high birth, named Ethelgivu, whose daughter was married to the young king. In the meantime, Dunstan had been banished and fled to Flanders. Then followed a period of strife in England, which was only ended by the death of Edwy and the succession of Edgar, a boy of fourteen.

The young king recalled Dunstan, and made him Archbishop of Canterbury, and by the influence of Dunstan the unity of the realm was restored. Throughout the reign of Edgar, the chief direction of affairs lay in the hands of Dunstan; and his work was a work of settlement. His policy was to weld the Danes and the English into one nation, and thus to ensure peace. During the years of Dunstan's rule, justice and order were enforced, and Northmen and Englishmen had equal rights and privileges.

Not only did he recognise Northmen as Englishmen, but he employed Northmen in the royal service and promoted them to high offices in Church and State. It was in Dunstan's time, too, that Edgar was crowned at Bath and recognised as overlord of Britain. It is worthy of note that it was in Edgar's reign that the name of Britain passed into the name of England, the land of Englishmen.

It will thus be seen that Dunstan's work as a statesman was very fruitful of good results. He may be looked upon as the first of a long line of ecclesiastical statesmen, among whom we may reckon Lanfranc, Becket, Wolsey, and Laud. But we must not forget that if Dunstan was a statesman directing

Pictura et scriptura huius pagine subter
uisa : est de propria manu s^ci dunstani .



ST. DUNSTAN AT THE FEET OF CHRIST.

From a drawing by Dunstan's own hand in the Bodleian Library.

the affairs of the kingdom, he was also careful to do his utmost to promote the welfare of the clergy. Dunstan laboured to elevate the lives of the clergy, and make them real teachers of the people not only in morals and religion, but also in secular learning, in skill, and in handicrafts.

It is worth remembering that when at Glastonbury he built himself a cell 5 feet long by $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, where he used to pray and where he had visions. It was in this cell that he worked in metals, and, while labouring at his forge, it is related that the devil appeared to him and tempted him. The old historian relates that the temptation was ended by Dunstan seizing the fiend by the nose with his red-hot tongs!

Leaving legend on one side, let us come back to sober fact. Dunstan lived through the short reign of Edward the Martyr and saw the early years of the unhappy reign of Ethelred the Unready. This unwise king put an end to Dunstan's career, and the archbishop spent his later years at Canterbury. There he passed his days in the affairs of the Church, in study, in prayer, and even in the handicrafts he loved so well. He died in 988, and was buried near the altar of his church. His memory is kept alive by his day in the calendar, on May 19th, and the remembrance of his gentleness and patience have survived him through all the centuries.

CHAPTER VII.

FROM CANUTE TO HAROLD.

IN the last chapter we read that England became a great kingdom in the reign of Edgar, and that this was mainly owing to the wise counsel of Dunstan. But it had sore trials to bear before Englishmen could be thoroughly welded and blended together into one people, looking on themselves as a single nation. After the death of Edgar the kingdom grew weak under his successors; and in the reign of Ethelred the Unready came a second Danish attack, which ended for a while in the conquest of England and in its rule by the Danish king, Canute.

Canute was a wise and popular king, and during his reign of 18 or 19 years the land enjoyed the blessing of peace. During this period the Danes who lived in England settled down as part of the English nation, so that to this day many of the people in the east of England have Danish blood in their veins. If Canute's sons, Harold and Hardicanute, had been like their father, our kings might also have descended from them. But these young men were wild and worthless, and when Hardicanute died seven years after his father, the English sent to Normandy for Edward, a son of Ethelred the Unready, to come to be their king.



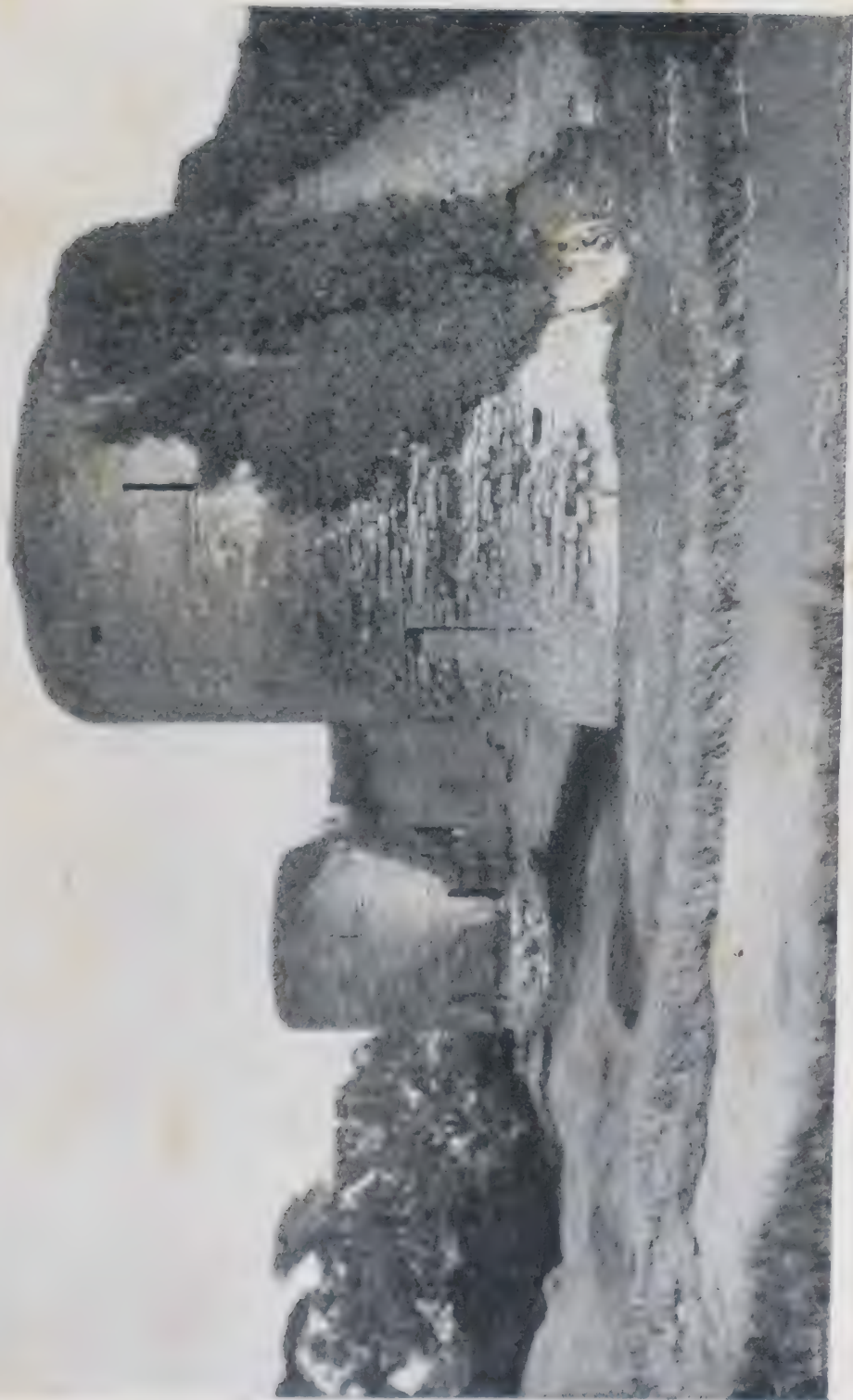
COIN OF CANUTE.

The English people were once again ruled by one of their own kings, and for the next 24 years the land seems to have been ruled, on the whole, well, for Edward the Confessor was guided by wise ministers, Earl Godwine and his son Harold. At first Edward was under the influence of some Norman friends, but he was persuaded to get rid of them and take the advice of Englishmen.

It is said that Edward the Confessor recommended that Harold should succeed him as king; and so we find, on the Confessor's death in 1066, that Harold sought the crown and was duly elected by the Witan. The next day Harold was crowned at Westminster by Archbishop Ealdred. The election and coronation of Harold woke rivalry and dissension among the other English nobles, and so laid England open to the ambition of William, Duke of Normandy.

Indeed, William at once claimed the throne, and declared that Harold had promised it to him some years before, when he was shipwrecked and made prisoner on the coast of Normandy. The Norman Duke also affirmed that Edward the Confessor had promised him he should be the next king: though of course the crown was not his to give away, as only the Witan could say who should reign.

Before the coming of William, Harold had defeated the Norwegian army at the battle of Stamford Bridge, in which Tostig, his own brother, and Harold Hardrada were slain. This was on September 25th, and two days later William sailed with a fine army from St. Valery and landed at Pevensey, in Sussex, on September 28th.



PEVENSEY CASTLE.

Photo Valentine & Sons, Ltd. Dunoon.

William at once marched to the field of Senlac, some seven miles north of the town of Hastings and near to the present town of Battle, to which the fight that followed gave its name. Here he found the English army under King Harold, who had hurried south on hearing of William's invasion, for the English were arrayed on a low hill, or rise of ground, which was strengthened with palisades.

On the morning of October 14th, King Harold rose early and put his men in order. On the slope of the hill, facing William's army, he planted the two ensigns, which were always set up in an English royal army. The one was the Golden Dragon, the old ensign of Wessex; and the other was the Standard, which was the king's own device, being a great flag richly adorned with precious stones, and with the gold figure of a fighting man wrought upon it. Between these two standards the king took his place.

Harold's picked men wore coats of mail. They had javelins to hurl at the beginning of the fight, and their great two-handed axes to use when the foe came to close quarters. But there were also others in the English army who had no armour, and who were badly provided with weapons, using pikes, forks, or anything they could bring. King Harold put these inferior troops in the rear, and placed his picked men in front.

Thus the English stood on the hill ready for the French host, and about nine o'clock in the morning the Norman army, divided into three parts, advanced under the leadership of William, right against the point of the hill, where stood King Harold.

And now the battle of Senlac or Hastings, began in deadly earnest. The Norman archers let fly their arrows, and a man named Taillefer rode out from among the Norman ranks. He was a juggler, or



PLAN OF BATTLE OF HASTINGS.

minstrel, but he was a brave man, and so gained William's permission to strike the first blow. As Taillefer came forth, he managed to kill one man with his lance and another with his sword, but then he was cut down himself.

Then the French army pressed on at all points, shouting, "God help us," while the English cried,

“God Almighty” and “Holy Cross.” The French tried very hard to break down the barricade, but it was all in vain. The English hurled their javelins at them, and when they came near enough they cut them down with their axes.

William and his army tried again and again to get up the hill, but without success, for the English would not swerve, and King Harold and his brothers were foremost among the fighters. For some time it seemed that the French must be defeated, when William decided to resort to strategy. He saw that his only chance was to get the English down from the hill into the plain. So he ordered his troops to pretend flight. At once many of the English ran down the hill and gave chase to the Normans. But presently the Normans turned, and now the English had to fly.

The English line was thus broken, and, as the hill was defenceless at many points, the Normans rode up, and the battle was now fought on the hill. But the Normans had not yet won the fight, for the English had a good position, and Harold and his mighty men were still there. As Harold continued fighting by his standard, it was against that point that the Normans now directed their attack.

Duke William bade his archers shoot up in the air, so that the arrows might fall like bolts from heaven. This device proved successful, for this awful shower of arrows pierced many men right through their helmets. One shaft pierced Harold in his right eye; he clutched at it and broke off the shaft. His axe dropped from his hand, and he fell between the two royal ensigns.

Twenty Norman knights swore to take the English

Standard now that Harold was wounded. They rushed on, but most of them were killed by Harold's faithful bodyguard, who still fought around their dying king. Then four knights rushed upon King Harold as he lay dying, and killed him with several wounds and mangled his body. So died the last of our old English kings, and it may be said that he died the most glorious of deaths, fighting for the land and the people which he had loved so well.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST AND ITS MEANING.

THE battle of Hastings was one of the decisive battles in our nation's history, but it must be well understood that this great victory did not make Duke William King of England nor put him in possession of the whole land. He still held only part of Sussex, and the people of the rest of the kingdom did not show any inclination to submit to him. If England had had another leader like Harold, William might have had to fight many more battles, for William had no friends in England except a few Norman nobles.

William did not call himself king till he was crowned at Westminster two months later, and even then he held possession of only about one-third of the kingdom. It was four or five years before he could say the whole realm was his by conquest. Still we must say that the great fight on Senlac more or less

settled the future of England, for after that fight William never met with any general resistance. He did not have to fight another pitched battle against another wearer or claimant of the English crown.

In various parts of England there were risings against William, and such brave leaders as Hereward and Waltheof rebelled against the Conqueror, but in the end William conquered the land bit by bit. What we must remember clearly is the fact that the battle of Hastings did not make William master of the kingdom at once. We can only say that the victory on Senlac Hill made it certain that William would become king sooner or later.

Now, as the Norman Conquest marks a crisis in our history, let us try to understand what it means. By this Conquest we understand a series of events during the latter part of the eleventh century when a Norman duke was set on the throne of England, and was enabled to hand down the crown of England to his descendants. This Conquest was the cause of a great number of changes of all kinds, which have made the history and state of our land ever since to be very different from what they would have been if the Norman Conquest had never happened.

The word conquest really means the getting or winning of anything, whether by right or not, or whether by force or not. For instance, it might mean the winning of a kingdom by strength of war, or it might mean winning it by sentence of law. It is this first meaning of the word which applies to the Norman Conquest of England. When William was first called

the Conqueror it did not mean that he had won the crown of England by force, for he claimed it as his own by law. But as he had to win it in the end by force, we can rightly speak of the Conquest and the Conqueror in the sense of winning a land and the rule over it by strength of war.

For, though William claimed the throne as his own by law, we have seen that he could get it only by coming into our land with an army and killing our king in the fight on Senlac Hill; and when he had got the crown he had still to win the land little by little, often by hard fighting, before he had got the whole kingdom under his sway. Hence we can say that the Norman Conquest of England was the winning of the land by strength of war.

Having seen the meaning of the Norman Conquest, let us consider what happened to the conquered people. It would appear that the English were neither killed, nor driven out, nor made slaves, but went on living on their own land as in the days of Harold and Edward the Confessor. But though the English people were not killed or driven out, yet very many Englishmen had their lands, houses, and offices taken from them and given to strangers. This transfer happened specially with the large estates and the chief offices; and it may be said that these passed almost entirely to strangers. Thus it came about that not only did a foreign king rule in England, but that his foreign followers displaced Englishmen in nearly all the highest offices.

Of course William had to reward those who had helped him to conquer the land, as he would also want

their assistance in retaining his conquests. But as he claimed to be the lawful king, he gave them those lands and offices to be held direct from him, according to English law. From this, and from other causes, it came to pass that the descendants of the Normans who settled in England became Englishmen by adoption. In a few generations these Norman settlers learned to speak English, and came to have the feelings of Englishmen.

We can now return to our story and see what happened directly after the battle of Hastings. And to do this we cannot do better than find out what the *English Chronicle* has to say about the course of events. It tells us that the English would not come to William, so he plundered all that part which he overran until he reached Berkhamstead in Hertfordshire.

At that town there came to meet him Archbishop Ealdred, the child Edgar, grandson of Edmund Ironside, Edwin and Morecar, two great earls, and all the chief men of London. These all submitted to the Conqueror, gave him hostages, and swore oaths to him. William, in return, promised that he would be a loving lord to them. This was early in December, 1066, and on Christmas Day of that year Archbishop Ealdred consecrated William king at Westminster.

The *Chronicle* says that "he gave him a pledge upon Christ's book, and also swore, before he would set the crown upon his head, that he would govern the nation as well as any king before him had done, if they would be faithful to him." But the *Chronicle* adds, "Nevertheless, William laid a tribute upon the people, very heavy."

þa hy on þýrre bæ ge endian mæge ac ic oððe on gū
nan fereal

AFTERÐAMÐEROME BVRHGETIM BRAXORS.

III. HUND PINTRA 7 LIII. ON þA CO
dagum þe gallie nome afeort hæfdon; þa geƿearp
feomæte sibb. 7 feo byr in oðleaswite. be tƿi hlæce
demonium cƿealonde. 7 ƿeƿsum. æfter þam ðe
læce demone. hæfdon ƿeƿre oft ofer ƿunnen. þa
gebudon him ƿeƿre þi hælfdon in ƿunten sibbe ƿið
hæfe þe þƿolde; 7 ƿe þe þi nolde. þi ƿolde þa mid ge
feohre gefecan; hy þa læce demone; tuſe lice þe ƿe
sibbe hy ƿunmedon. for þam lȳt lange. þe him in on
gebead. on þam mon mæg ſƿutole on enaƿan. hū mȳ
ælcne ƿillan. hy eodan geƿinne hæfdon. ſƿa heora
ƿoƿas. on heora leodum. geƿiende 7 ƿindon; 7 on
heora leaƿpellengum. ne gefined þe ſƿyle geƿinn.
nolte lufre bæne cƿað on oðrum; ne ſatida þon mas.
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gefeƿian. Afeorþam þe læce demone; hæfdon ofer
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ƿan ƿiðan geƿiþ ahtene ſaburh. þe hy ær afeortan.
7 ƿiðan þa ƿiðan þe ſe ƿiðan ut oðflugon. hæfdon eft

William evidently felt that all was going well, for during Lent of the next year (1067) he went over to Normandy, taking with him many of the chief men of England. He left behind him Bishop Odo and Earl William to rule in his absence, and they built castles throughout the land and caused much distress among the poor people. Well may the *Chronicle* conclude, "And ever after it greatly grew in evil. May the end be good when God will!" Another old writer remarks, "This was a fatal day to England, a melancholy havoc of our dear country through its change of masters."

It will now be well to leave this story of the Norman Conquest, and in the next chapter we shall see what manner of man William was, and how he ruled England for 21 years.

CHAPTER IX

THE WORK OF THE CONQUEROR.

BEFORE we consider the work of William as a ruler, let us trace briefly his task as a conqueror. It took him five years from his first landing before he was in full possession of the kingdom and had put down all opposition everywhere. The great battle had given him real possession of south-eastern England only; but, as we saw, it gave him the great advantage of being crowned king before the end of the year.

During the next year, 1067, William made no

further conquests. The west and north of England remained unsubdued, but there was no fighting in any part of the land except in Kent and Hertfordshire. The next two years were most important, for it was then that England was really conquered. In the early part of 1068, William won the west, and, in the latter part, he subdued central and northern England as far as Yorkshire.

After putting down some revolts, William commenced a great campaign in 1069, and by the next year the whole land was, for the first time, in William's possession. There was no more fighting of importance, and he was able to give his mind to the more peaceful part of his schemes. We must briefly notice one revolt, because the name of Hereward is associated with it. Other leaders might be mentioned, but it is clear that Hereward was the soul of the enterprise.

Hereward would not submit to the stern Conqueror, and took refuge with a gallant band in the Isle of Ely. Many tales are told of his exploits, but this much is certain, that William attacked the Isle from all points, and there was much fighting for many months. In October, 1071, the Isle surrendered. Some say that the monks of Ely turned traitors; others that some of the leaders grew faint-hearted. Anyhow William took possession of the Isle of Ely, and there he built a castle.

Hereward alone did not submit, but is said to have sailed out into the sea unconquered. There are many stories of his end. Some say that he was at last received into William's favour; but it is also related that he was killed by a party of Normans, who set

upon him without any orders from William, and that he died fighting bravely, one man against many.

After William had gradually conquered England, he went on to claim a lordship over the rest of Britain.



ELY.

He could not, however, keep matters wholly quiet on the Welsh and Scottish borders; but, speaking generally, the land remained quiet under William's rule.

Having traced the work of William as a conqueror, let us inquire as to the nature of his government in England all this time. There is no doubt that William wished to rule his kingdom as well as he could. He even tried to learn English, so that he might the better do his duty as its king. He professed to rule according to the laws of King Edward.

but though the laws might be the same, the working of them was very different in the hands of a stranger.

By the end of William's reign there were very few Englishmen holding great estates; and there was no English earl, and only one English bishop. But William's government was much stronger than that of his predecessors, for he was better able to enforce the law, and he did enforce it very strictly.

The old English writers give him great credit for making peace in the land, that is, for severely punishing all wrong-doers. But the special complaint which they make against William is that he was greedy and covetous, and imposed heavy taxes. This is no doubt true, but it must be remembered that men were not then accustomed to regular taxation, and so resented it.

William, however, did make some new laws, and it is worthy of note that he forbade the slave trade by which men were sold out of their land, chiefly to Ireland. He also forbade the punishment of death; criminals might be blinded or mutilated, but not hanged or otherwise killed. The most important law he made at the end of his reign. He met the great assembly at Salisbury in 1086, and there he ordained that every landholder must swear to be faithful to him as king, even against his other lord. Never was a more important law made in England than this, for it settled that the land was to be united under William.

We have seen that William could do very dreadful things for the sake of his own policy, and after a while he came to do things almost as bad for the sake of his pleasure. William was specially fond

of hunting, and to promote his pleasure in this way he made a forest in Hampshire, not far from his capital at Winchester : and now, after the lapse of 800 years, that forest is still called the New Forest.

In order to make his New Forest, William turned the tilled land into a wilderness ; he took men's lands from them, and destroyed houses and churches. He also decreed that harsh punishments should be meted out against man or beast that meddled with his game. So it came to be thought that the New Forest wrought a special curse on his house ; and we know that his two sons, Richard and William, and his grandson, all died in a strange way in the Forest.

The great act of William's reign was commenced in 1085, when a general survey of the kingdom was ordered to be taken. For this purpose, commissioners were sent throughout the greater part of England, and they had to set down in a book the name of the owner of every piece of land now and in King Edward's day ; what it was worth now and what it was worth in King Edward's day. This book was called the *Domesday Book*, and was kept at Winchester. It is a most wonderful record, and tells us more of the state of England just at that time than we know of it for a long time before or after. Perhaps the chief value of this book is to show us how far the land had passed from Englishmen to Normans.

The way in which the great Conqueror came by his death was hardly worthy of the great deeds of his life. He had been drawn into a quarrel with the French king, and in 1087 he harried the land of Vexin cruelly. On August 15th he entered Nantes, caused it

TERRA SVENI De Exstella. Hund de tdestapla
 Cormindunam tenut Aluun^o tann^o reg^e. e. z. r. e. 7 Rex Wilt
 dedit Rodo. m. tene Suen^o. 7 Sine de illo. p uno manerio. 4 p. 4. hid.
 7. 24. ac. Sep. 11. car. indnio. 7. 14. car. hom. 7. 11. uitt. tē. 411. bol. m^o
 2. tē. 111. ser. m. 1. 11. hid. silug. 7. 11. soc. de. L. ac. hnoes sep. dim. car.
 In hoc manerio recep. Suen^o. 1. runc. 1411. an. xx. por. Lx. od. m. 111.
 an. 211. por. L. od. Vat. c. sot.
 Langendunā tenet. Walte de Sueno. qd tenut Alric^o tann^o reg^e.
 p. 5. 7. p. 4. hid. Sep. 11. car. indnio. 7. 11. car. hom. 7. 4. uitt. tē. 111. ser.

to be set on fire, and then rode about it to see the burning. At last his horse stumbled, perhaps on the hot embers. William was thrown forward on the tall bow of his saddle, and received an internal wound which made him give over. Men carried him to Rouen, where he lay for three weeks in the priory of Saint Gervase outside the city.

William died on September 9th, 1087, and his body was carried for burial to Caen. When the service began, one Asselin, the son of Arthur, stepped forward and claimed as his own the ground in which the grave had been dug. "In the name of God," he cried, "I forbid that the body of the robber be buried in my soil." So they paid him for the grave, and afterwards for the whole estate that he had lost. Still worse was to follow, for, as the corpse was lowered in the grave, it burst, to the disgust of the bystanders. Thus was William gathered to his fathers amid confusion and horror.

CHAPTER X.

THE LATER NORMAN KINGS. OR THE RESULTS OF THE CONQUEST.

WILLIAM RUFUS succeeded his father in 1087. He began his reign as a Norman king of England only, for Robert, his elder brother, held the Duchy of Normandy, according to the will of the Conqueror. But William got first part and then the whole of

Normandy into his hands, and he afterwards warred with France.

The reign of William Rufus was one of great oppression and wrong, and in his time, under his minister, Ralph Flambard, some new customs as to the holding of land were introduced. There is no



GREAT SEAL OF HENRY I.

need to dwell upon the unhappy reign of the second William, but at his death, in 1100, Normandy and England were again separated for a time. Robert once more became Duke of Normandy, while Henry was chosen king of the English.

Henry I. was the only one of the Conqueror's children who was really English. Thus the native

English were strongly for him, and helped him to keep the crown, when the Normans again wished for Robert. This is the last time that we hear of the English and Normans in England acting as separate classes of people. Henceforth we find that the two races were gradually welded together.

Henry pleased the English by marrying Edith or Matilda, the daughter of Malcolm, king of Scotland, and Margaret, the sister of the Atheling Edgar. Thus the children of Henry sprang from the old English kings.

After a few years, Robert ruled Normandy so badly that many of his own people wanted to get rid of him. Accordingly Henry fought against him and defeated him at Tinchebrai, in 1106, and so won the Duchy of Normandy. You will notice that this was just forty years after William had won England; and men began to say that things were now turned round.

This will be a very good place to turn aside from the course of our story, and consider what effect the Norman Conquest had upon the history of England; how it affected our laws and language; and how it improved the learning and literature of the English.

It probably seemed at the time that the English people had lost their freedom, their laws, and their language. But in truth the Norman Conquest has actually preserved all these, with the exception of our language, more perfectly than would have been the case if there had been no Norman Conquest. We can safely say that in no other land have things gone on from the beginning with so little real change as in England. Let us remember that the Norman Conquest

did not bring us many things that were quite new ; but it rather strengthened and quickened the existing institutions.

One very important result of the Conquest was that England now began to have much more to do with other lands than she had before. Foreign commerce thus increased, and a great trade grew up with Normandy and other parts of France. Besides the soldiers who came to England, there also followed many merchants and other peaceful men. Thus Britain ceased to be a world of its own, and came in touch with continental nations.

It was through the Norman Conquest that England got involved in continental wars. When Normandy was a separate state, England and France had hardly any grounds of quarrel. But directly England and Normandy had one ruler, England got entangled in the quarrels of Normandy with France. This was the origin of the long rivalry of England and France.

The Norman Conquest was also the means of strengthening the power of our kings. Not only did the Norman kings keep all the powers, rights, and revenues of the English kings, but they added some new ones. William the Conqueror was looked upon as the chief lord, having under him the chief men of the land for his vassals. They held their lands of the king, and thus every man was the man of the king.

The Norman kings levied the old taxes, and raised money from the lands of their vassals. They could call the whole nation to war as in the olden days, and they could further call on the men, who held lands of

them, either to do military service* in their own persons or to pay money to be let off. This was really the outcome of the Feudal system which was developed by William.

The Norman Conquest made a great change in our language, and to this day we can mark the results of this change. We borrowed a vast number of French words, many of which were not wanted, as the things had already English names. This, however, was a gradual process, and for some time French and English were spoken side by side. French became the polite speech, while English remained the speech of the common people. By the end of the twelfth century, the Normans in England commonly spoke English, though of course they could speak French as well.

There is no doubt that the Norman Conquest caused a great advance in all matters of learning. Men of learning and science came to England, and we know that Lanfranc and Anselm, the first Archbishops of Canterbury after the Conquest, were the greatest scholars of their time. And so it came about that men in England took to learning and science, and we find a good stock of English writers in the twelfth century.

In the art of building the Norman Conquest marks a great stage in England, for it was in the eleventh century that new ideas in architecture were being introduced. The Normans of William's day were great builders, and the style, which grew up chiefly in Normandy, is commonly called Norman. This style took root in England, and churches and castles, besides houses and other buildings, were built in the Norman

style. Indeed the building of castles and other strong places is one of the greatest changes made by the Norman Conquest.



ROCHESTER CASTLE.

Before William's time Englishmen could fence in a town with walls, but they had no strong castles. The Normans brought in the fashion of building castles, and the massive strong towers of some of them remain to this day. The Tower of London, the Keeps of Colchester, Rochester, and elsewhere remind us of the military architecture of the Normans.

After the Conquest the land was filled with castles, and then we hear much more of sieges and much less of battles. The Normans also brought into England their own way of fighting. Before the Conquest the English had no horsemen and few archers. From this time the English had both ; indeed, English archers came to be the strongest part of an English army.

We can now conclude this chapter by remarking that the Norman Conquest gradually worked and made for the good of Englishmen. We have kept a more direct connection with the oldest times than those nations which have not been conquered by strangers.

CHAPTER XI.

THE ANARCHY, OR THE REIGN OF STEPHEN.

HENRY I. reigned from 1100 to 1135, and during that time his rule was just and orderly. It is true that he was a stern ruler, but with him the disorder and oppression under which England had suffered, in the time of his brother, William Rufus, came to an end. The great merit of Henry's government was that he secured peace by creating a regular system of administration, and so kept down the oppression of the barons. In this long period of rest, which the land so sorely needed, the Normans and Englishmen drew quietly and unconsciously together into one people, and thus all distinction of conquerors and conquered was lost.

In that famous book, the *English Chronicle*, there is a picturesque account of the last year of Henry's reign, and we cannot do better than read this graphic description of the year 1135: "This year, at Lammas, King Henry went over sea; and, on the second day, as he lay asleep in the ship, the day was darkened, and the sun became as it were a moon three nights old, with the stars shining at mid-day. Men marvelled greatly, and fear fell on them, and they said that some strange event should follow thereafter. And so it was, for the same year the king died in Normandy, and on the day after the feast of St. Andrew.

"Then King Henry's sons and his friends took his body, and brought it to England, and buried it at Reading. He was a good man, and great was the awe of him; no man durst ill-treat another in his time; for he made peace for men and deer. Whoso bare his burden of gold and silver, no man durst say to him ought but good."

We can thus say that the reign of Henry was appreciated by his people; but the progress of the country was broken by the long strife that followed Henry's death. King Henry had persuaded the barons to accept his daughter, Matilda, as their future sovereign. She had married Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, who came of a brave and active race, and whose lands, which lay to the south of Normandy, would enlarge the possessions of Henry's descendants.

Now among the barons who had sworn to obey Matilda was Stephen of Blois, a son of the Conqueror's daughter, Adela, and a nephew of Henry I. But on the death of his uncle, Stephen forgot his oath,

made his way to London, and was well received by the inhabitants. He was consecrated king on Mid-winter day, and from that date there followed a time of discord, and evil-doing, and robbery.

Again we must turn to the *English Chronicle* for a graphic narrative of the anarchy of Stephen's reign. It appears that the barons had sworn to do homage to him, as they thought that a man would be more likely to secure order than a woman. But these faithless barons broke their allegiance to Stephen, and every rich man built his castles, and defended them against Stephen. Indeed, we are told that the land was full of castles.

"The barons," says the *Chronicle*, "oppressed the wretched people by making them work at these castles, and when the castles were finished they filled them with devils and evil men. Then they took those whom they suspected to have any goods, by night and by day, seizing both men and women, and they put them in prison for their gold and silver. They tortured them with pains unspeakable, for never were martyrs tortured as these were. Many thousands they exhausted with hunger, and vile were the tortures inflicted upon the wretched men of this land for the nineteen years of Stephen's reign."

Then follows this gloomy picture of the state of affairs: "Then was corn dear, and flesh, and cheese, and butter, for there was none in the land. Never was there more misery, and never acted heathens worse than these. At length they spared neither church nor churchyard, but they took all that was valuable therein, and then burned the church and all together. The

earth bore no corn; you might as well have tilled the sea; for the land was all ruined by such deeds, and men said openly that Christ and his saints slept."

It may be said with truth that no more ghastly picture of a nation's misery has ever been painted than



COLCHESTER CASTLE. (After W. H. Bartlett.)

that which closes the *English Chronicle*: "They hanged up men by their feet and smoked them with foul smoke. Some were hanged up by their thumbs, others by the head, and burning things were hung on to their feet. They put knotted strings about their head, and writhed them till they went into the brain. They put

men into prisons where adders and snakes and toads were crawling, and so they tormented them."

Now, the cause of all this misery was the misrule of Stephen and the great power of the barons. Roger, Bishop of Salisbury, was at the head of this party, when, suddenly, Stephen seized this leader at Oxford and flung him into prison till he had consented to surrender his fortresses. The way was now opened for Matilda's landing in England, and soon the country was divided between the two rivals. Matilda was supported in the west, while Stephen had adherents in the east and in London.

Stephen was defeated at Lincoln, and fell into the hands of his enemies. Matilda entered London, and was received throughout the land as its "Lady." The Londoners, however, disliked her, and she was forced to flee to Oxford. There she was besieged by Stephen, who had gained his release ; but she escaped, in white robes, by a postern, and, crossing the frozen river unobserved, made her way to Abingdon. In 1148 Matilda gave up the struggle, and left England for Normandy.

In 1152 Matilda's son, Henry, who was now Count of Anjou, came to England to fight for his mother. He was a young man of great vigour and skill, and won fortress after fortress from Stephen. The English King thought it prudent to close the strife, and it was arranged by the Treaty of Wallingford that Stephen should retain the crown for life and that Henry should succeed him.

The 365 castles which had sprung up during the civil war, without the king's permission, were to be

destroyed, and order and good government were to return. Many of the castles were demolished, and "such good peace as never was here" was established. But a year had hardly passed when Stephen died, and young Henry ruled England in his own name.

CHAPTER XII.

THE PICTURE OF A GREAT KING, OR THE CHARACTER OF HENRY II.

It is quite a relief to turn from the long years of terrible suffering in Stephen's reign to the orderly government of Henry the Second's reign, which at last brought peace to the realm. Henry's rule was very extensive, for he inherited the French counties of Anjou and Maine from his father, Geoffrey Plantagenet; he married Eleanor, Duchess of Aquitaine, and thus became master of nearly all southern France; and he was Duke of Normandy in right of his mother. Thus his accession to the English throne on the death of Stephen made him one of the greatest monarchs in the world of his day.

But great as was his power, his ability was yet greater. He had no sooner become king than he put an end to the disorder which had so long reigned in England. He subdued the barons, drove out the foreign soldiery, forced all to keep good peace, and carried justice through the length and breadth of his kingdom.

We have an excellent picture of the life of this great king, and as it was written by his secretary, Peter of Blois, it will be interesting to read this account of Henry II.

Henry was fond of constantly moving about from place to place, and so coming in contact with his people and acquainting himself with all parts of his great empire. But Peter of Blois tells us that he was very uncertain in his movements. "If the king has promised to spend the day anywhere, especially if a herald has publicly proclaimed that such is the royal will, you may be sure that he will start off early in the morning, and by his sudden change of mind will throw everybody's plans into confusion. You may see men running about as if they were mad, urging on the pack-horses, driving chariots one into another, and everything in a state of confusion. The tumult is such as to give you a vivid picture of the infernal regions."

"But," says the chronicler, "if the king declares his intention of going to a certain place early the next morning, he will undoubtedly change his mind, and you may be sure that he will sleep till midday. You will see the pack-horses waiting under their loads, the chariots standing ready, the courtiers falling asleep, the purveyors uneasy, and everybody grumbling."

"After the weariness of long uncertainty, the courtiers and servants thought they would have the comfort of staying in a place where there was good food and lodging. But when the courtiers had already gone the whole day's journey, the king would change his mind and turn aside to some other place, where

perhaps he had only one house and provisions enough for himself, but not enough to share. His pleasure seemed to be increased when he saw the straits to which his followers were put.

"Then," says Peter, "after wandering about three or four miles through an unknown forest and frequently in the dark, we would think our prayers were answered if we found by chance some mean, filthy hut. There was often fierce and bitter contention over these hovels, and courtiers fought with drawn swords for a lodging that it would have been disgraceful for pigs to fight for." The writer then wishes that his royal master would show kingly grace and consideration and human compassion to the men, who are drawn after him, not by ambition but by necessity.

Peter of Blois also gives "an accurate description of the appearance and character" of Henry. "You may



EFFIGY OF HENRY II. ON HIS TOMB
AT FONTEVRAUD.

know then that our king is still ruddy except as old age and whitening hair have changed his colour a little. He is of medium stature, so that among small men he does not seem large, nor yet among large men does he seem small. His head is spherical, as if the abode of great wisdom and the special sanctuary of lofty intelligence. . . . His eyes are full, guileless, and dove-like when he is at peace, gleaming like fire when his temper is aroused, and in bursts of passion they flash like lightning.

“He has a broad, square, lion-like face. His feet are arched and he has the legs of a horseman. His broad chest and muscular arms show him to be a strong, bold, active man. His hands show by their coarseness that he is careless, for he never wears gloves except when he goes hawking.”

We have not such graphic details of the person of any of our other early kings, and hence we must value the writing of Peter of Blois. Having described the appearance of his royal master, he concludes by giving us some idea of Henry as a worker. “The king never sits down except when on horseback or at meals. On a single day, if necessary, he travels a journey of four or five days. He is a passionate lover of the woods, and when not engaged in war he exercises with birds and dogs. He does not loiter in his palace like other kings, but investigates what is being done everywhere, and is specially strict in his judgment of those whom he has appointed as judges of others.”

But besides this activity of body and restlessness of disposition, the king had many excellent qualities. In counsel he was keen and in speech he was eloquent.

He was courageous in adversity and danger gave him no anxiety. If once Henry loved any one, he rarely ceased to love him: while one for whom he had once taken a dislike, he seldom admitted to his favour. When not engaged in consultations or at his books, Henry always had weapons in his hands. The king was very fond of his books, and was pleased to occupy himself with reading when the opportunity offered.

It will thus be seen that Henry II. was one of our greatest kings, and during his reign of 34 years he succeeded in establishing a strong kingly rule administered by royal servants over all orders and classes. One of his first acts, when he became king, was to appoint Thomas Becket as chancellor to assist him in this work, and as Becket played such an important part in Henry's reign, we shall consider the life of this great man in the next chapter.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE STORY OF A GREAT CHURCHMAN, OR THE LIFE OF THOMAS BECKET.

THERE are few names in English history that are so well known as that of Becket, and there is probably no career that is more interesting. When we think of Becket, we are reminded of two other great ecclesiastics, Wolsey and Laud: and of all three we can say that they lived at a period when a strong man

was needed to advise his royal master faithfully. Becket bears a remarkable resemblance to Wolsey : each of them rose to the highest posts in Church and State, and each of them came to a tragic end.



SEAL OF S. THOMAS.

Journal of Archaeological Association.

Now, as Becket played so important a part in the reign of Henry II., it will be profitable to devote this chapter to an account of his life and work. It is well known that Thomas Becket was the son of a London trader of Norman blood. Thomas received

a clerkly education from the monks of Merton Abbey in Surrey, where he showed such marked ability that his friends said he was destined for great things. He was very tall and handsome, with aquiline nose, quick eyes, and long, slender, beautiful hands.

He was very vigorous and athletic, delighting in all the manly sports of his time. It is related that once, in his boyhood, he was exposed to a serious danger while he was out hawking with a knight, who used to lodge in his father's house. They came to a narrow bridge, fit only for passengers, with a mill-wheel just below. Heedless of danger, the knight rode across the bridge, followed by Thomas on horseback. Suddenly the horse made a false step, and fell into the river. The boy Thomas could swim, but would not make for the bank without rescuing the hawk that had shared his fall. He was thus drawn by the swift current under the wheel, and in another moment would have been torn to pieces, if the miller had not stopped the machinery and pulled him out of the water, more dead than alive.

This story is characteristic of Becket, for it reveals to us the eager, impulsive nature of the man. His life was preserved, and we soon find him moving among the citizens of London. It was then the practice for wealthy merchants to lodge their customers when they came to London on business, and by this means Thomas became known to several persons of high position. A rich merchant named Osborn gave him his accounts to keep; knights praised his fine riding, and peers observed his learning and religious life.

At length Thomas came under the notice of Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, by whom he was ordained deacon, and presented with the Archdeaconry of Canterbury, an office of great dignity. In the



CONSECRATION OF A BISHOP.

Probably drawn by Matthew Paris, MS. Cott. Nero D.

year 1155 he was appointed Chancellor by Henry II. He was then only thirty-eight, but of great ability, graceful in manner, ready of speech, clear in mind, and of considerable bodily strength.

Henry II. at this time was only a little over

twenty, and so delighted was he with the new Chancellor, that he not only sought his advice in ruling England, but, when business was over, they used to play together like two schoolboys. Let us endeavour to picture the life of Becket at this period, when he stood so high in the favour of his royal master.

In the hall of Chancellor Thomas, earls and barons sat round his table at the daily meals; and knights and nobles crowded so thickly at the others that the benches were not sufficient for their accommodation. So in winter the floor was daily strewn with hay or straw, and in summer with green boughs, that those who sat on it might not soil their gorgeous robes. Gold and silver dishes, costly goblets, and the richest wines were provided, and the choicest viands were purchased at any price for these sumptuous entertainments.

The Chancellor, however, seldom touched these delicacies, living on the plainest fare, as he sat in his place as the host. But he amused his guests with his conversation, and provided minstrelsy and sports of all kinds for their recreation. Sometimes in the midst of the gay crowd seated on the floor, the King would ride into the hall, throw himself off his horse, leap over the table, and join in the mirth. These rich feasts afforded plentiful alms for the poor, who were never forgotten by Becket, and the oppressed never failed to find a protector in the Chancellor of England.

It was the daily habit of Becket to give costly gifts both to rich and poor. Gold and silver, robes and jewels, fine armour and horses, hawks and hounds,

were bestowed by him on those who came in his way. His house was full of young squires and pages, the sons of the nobility, who were placed there as the best school of knighthood. The king himself placed his own son Henry as a pupil of Becket.

It would not be correct to call Becket a perfect character; but we can say he was thoroughly conscientious, kept himself free from all reproach, and guarded himself by strict discipline. Instead of sleeping on his rich bed, he lay on the bare boards. Under his robes he wore sackcloth, and often submitted to the lash of penance. As a judge he was upright and fearless, and by his wisdom as Henry's adviser, he restored peace to England.

Becket, too, was no mean soldier, for when Henry went to war with France, Becket accompanied him and aided him with seven hundred knights of his own household, besides twelve hundred in his pay, and four thousand foot-soldiers. He supported the knights at his own expense, and he himself commanded them, wearing armour, and riding at their head. In combat he showed himself strong and dexterous in the use of lance and sword, and won great admiration and respect even from the French.

Henry decided to come to a treaty with the King of France, and he sent Becket on this embassy of peace. Realising the importance of his mission, Becket set out in royal style. Two hundred men on horseback, in armour or gay robes, were his immediate followers. With them came eight wagons, each drawn by five horses, a groom walking beside each horse, and a driver and guard to each wagon.

The wagons carried provisions and furniture for the night; two were filled with ale for the French; one was fitted up as a kitchen, and another for a chapel. Twelve sumpter horses carried smaller articles, and on



MITRE OF S. THOMAS AT SENS.

the back of each of these sat a long-tailed ape. The procession was completed by attendants with dogs and hawks, and a company of singing-men. So much were the beholders impressed with this magnificence that men said, "If such was the Chancellor, what must be the King!"

Much to the satisfaction of Henry, Becket successfully completed the treaty with King Louis of

France. Soon afterwards Archbishop Theobald died, and then Becket, much against his own wishes, was made Archbishop of Canterbury. And now came a complete change in the life and habits of Becket. Instead of pleasing his master, he seemed to thwart his wishes ; and whereas he once lived sumptuously, he now shunned extravagance of all kinds and the company of the rich.

Henry was now determined that the same laws should be enforced through every class of society. At this time no churchman was subject to the ordinary courts of law, but every clergyman was judged by his bishop. This led to great scandals, and when Henry made Becket the Archbishop, he believed that he would secure his help in putting an end to this disorder.

Becket, however, saw some objections to putting all men alike under the king's control, and he would not assent to the new plan. A long and bitter strife now began between them, and Becket had to flee from England. After some years Becket was reconciled to his master, and was allowed to return from banishment.

No sooner, however, was Becket in England than he again offended the king. In his wrath Henry uttered some hasty words, which were overheard by some of his knights. Four of them swore to avenge Henry on Becket, and at once they crossed the sea, for Henry was then in France, and made their way to Canterbury. There they found the Archbishop and threatened him with death. Becket was undaunted, and it was with difficulty that he was drawn for safety into the cathedral by the frightened monks.

Thither the knights followed, and a scuffle ensued. Becket, backed by a pillar, stood his ground, and resisted with all his might. At length a blow was struck, and Becket sank on his knees, when he was



S. THOMAS AND HIS SECRETARY.
Herbert of Bosham, MS. Trin. Coll. Camb.

heard to murmur, "For the name of Jesus and the defence of His Church, I am willing to die." Another tremendous blow severed the crown of the head from the skull, and the great Archbishop's splendid career was ended in the cathedral he loved so well.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE LIFE AND DEATH OF RICHARD I.

THE murder of Becket was so great a crime that all Europe was shocked. Henry, too, was much grieved, and protested that his words had been misunderstood. It is said that when the news was carried to Henry he neither ate nor slept for three days; and subsequently, when he visited Canterbury Cathedral, he allowed himself to be scourged by the monks.

We cannot deal further with the reign of Henry in this book, but we must remember that he was a great and noble king. His passion was for justice, and it was he who gave our courts of justice the form they have preserved to our own day. He proved himself a beneficent ruler in England; and, although he had many and great faults, they were so terribly punished, that we are forced to pity him. His later years were embittered by the rebellions of his own sons. Indeed, his son, Richard, leagued himself with Philip, the French king, and attacked his father in Anjou. Henry was unable to make a stand owing to the lack of troops, and, driven from Tours, he was forced to submit to a humiliation which brought him to the grave in 1189.

His end was indeed a terrible one. It was near midnight when he died, and at that hour the wind sprang up and howled about the turrets of Chinon. With his last breath he cursed his children, and passed away knowing that he left a wife in prison and two sons in arms against him.

Richard, who succeeded his father as king of England, can hardly be counted an English king. He seems to have spent only a few months in England, and



GREAT SEAL OF RICHARD I.

it is doubtful if he could speak English. When he visited his realm it was only to gather money for the Crusade, which he had vowed to undertake with Philip of France. As Richard did so little for the good of

England, we may as well follow him in his exploits in the Holy Land.

He left England in 1189, and when he reached Palestine, after some adventures, he laid siege to Acre in 1191. There he was successful; but, on the capture of the city, the French king returned home after a serious quarrel with Richard, who at once led his troops to the siege of Jerusalem.

It was the end of August, 1191, when Richard, at the head of his troops, started from Acre to accomplish the great desire of his life. He led his army into the midst of Mount Carmel, where their sufferings were terrible. Besides the difficulties to overcome in marching through a rocky, sandy, and uneven country, they had to contend with swarms of noxious insects. In addition to these obstacles, they were harassed on every side by multitudes of Arab horsemen, who attacked them unceasingly and remorselessly.

Richard was always in the van, fighting most gallantly, and ready to reward the exploits of his knights. On the 7th of September a great battle was fought. Saladin and his brother were leading the Saracens, and did deeds of valour worthy of the English king. But Richard was more than a match for his brave foe. The Lion-Hearted hewed down the enemy on all sides, and, at the end of a most exciting battle, he was master of the field. It is even said that Richard and Saladin fought hand to hand, but this is uncertain.

This victory opened the way to Joppa, where the Crusaders spent the next month in the repair of the fortifications, while the Saracen forces lay at Ascalon. From Joppa the Crusaders marched to Ramla, and

then, on New Year's day, 1192, set out for Jerusalem, through a country full of obstacles greater than they had yet encountered. They were in high spirits, however, until they reached Bethany, where it was represented to Richard that it would not be prudent to lay siege to Jerusalem at this season of the year.

Reluctantly, he yielded and retreated to Ascalon, which Saladin had ruined and then abandoned. Richard began to repair the fortifications so as to be able to leave a garrison there. His soldiers grumbled, for they said they had not come to Palestine to build Ascalon, but to conquer Jerusalem, whereupon Richard himself set the example of carrying stones, and even ordered the Duke of Austria to do the same. Leopold replied sulkily that he was not the son of a mason. This so irritated Richard that he struck him a blow, and straightway Leopold quitted the Holy Land and returned to Austria.

It was with great grief that Richard was forced to give up his hopes of taking Jerusalem. He again advanced to Bethany; but, owing to difficulties, he could not proceed, and, sad at heart, he returned to Ramla. While riding out with a party of knights, one of them called out, "This way, my lord, and you will see Jerusalem!" But Richard hid his face with his mantle and exclaimed, "Alas! those who are not worthy to win the Holy City are not worthy to behold it!"

He returned to Acre, but hearing that Saladin was besieging Joppa, he at once sailed to its aid. As he entered the harbour, he saw the Crescent floating over its walls, and this so goaded him to action that he

leapt into the water breast-high, dashed upwards on the shore, and rushing up a flight of steps entered the city alone. The cry of "St. George! St. George!" so dismayed the Saracens and those in the town, to the

number of three thousand, that they fled in confusion, and for two miles were pursued by three knights.



KNIGHT AND SLINGER.

Early Thirteenth Century MS. Roy. I.

Richard pitched his tent outside the walls, and remained there with a few troops. Early one morning, before the king was out of bed, a man rushed into his tent, crying out, "O King! we are all dead men!" Springing up, Richard fiercely silenced him by saying, "Peace, or thou diest by my hand!" No sooner had he donned his coat of

mail than the enemy were upon them, to the number of seven thousand. Richard had neither helmet nor shield, and only seventeen of his knights had horses. Nothing daunted, he drew up his little force in a compact body, the knights kneeling on one knee, and between each pair was an archer with an attendant to load his cross-bow.

Richard himself stood in the midst, encouraging

his men with his voice, and threatening to cut off the head of the first who dared to fly. It was in vain that the Saracens charged that mass of brave men, not one-seventh of their number. At last the king gave the word for the cross-bowmen to advance, while he and his knights charged the enemy. His mighty axe bore down all before it, and he dashed like lightning from one part of the plain to another.

In the midst of the fight, news reached Richard that three thousand Saracens had entered Joppa. He summoned a few knights, and, without a word to the rest, galloped back to the city. He soon cleared the streets, and, returning to the battlefield, he again led his troops to the charge; but it was not till the close of day that the Christians could pause or look round and feel that they had gained a wonderful victory. It is related that during the day Richard had not once laid aside his sword or axe, and his hand was terribly blistered. No wonder that for centuries his name excited terror, and that the Arab would chide his horse and the mother would still her crying child by threats that Richard was coming!

Richard's health was seriously injured, and he thought it wise to conclude a peace and return home. Accordingly, a truce was signed with the Saracens for three years, three months, three weeks, three days, three hours, and three minutes! On October 9, 1193, Richard left Palestine, and as he watched, with tears in his eyes, its receding shores, he exclaimed: "O Holy Land, I commend thee and thy people unto God. May He grant me yet to return to aid thee."

The Lion-Hearted King was destined never to return

to Palestine. On his way home he was taken prisoner by his enemy, Leopold of Austria, and hung into a dungeon. At length Richard was ransomed ; but after a short visit to England he plunged into war with King Philip of France, and was slain at the Castle of Chaluz.

They buried him at Fontevrault, at the feet of his father. Not all of Richard, however, was buried there, for his heart was placed in a casket and taken to the church of Rouen, and laid among the dead dukes of Normandy. It was fitting that this was so done, for Richard's heart was "as bold as any of theirs, and capable of more gentle music when the fine hand plucked the chords."

CHAPTER 'XV.

THE CRUSADES AND THEIR RESULTS.

THE Crusades were so important in the results which followed from them, that we must devote this chapter to a consideration of the causes and motives which brought them about. The Crusades were a great European movement of the Middle Ages, but they also form the turning-point towards modern history. They were something more than wars, and we shall find that they resulted in opening up the wealth of the East for the benefit of the West.

The Crusaders were influenced by two very strong motives. The first was a religious belief that pilgrim-

ages, especially to the holy places in Palestine, would be the best penance for their sins and a kind of passport to the other world. The other motive was the love of adventure and the enjoyment of personal combat, which is so prominent a feature of the age of chivalry. Besides these two motives there were mingled more selfish ones, such as a desire on the part of the leaders to secure new territories and a wish to increase their riches.

The special occasion of the First Crusade was the advance of the Turks from Bagdad to the west. About twenty years before the First Crusade they captured the city of Jerusalem from the Caliphs of Egypt, and the pilgrims from the west began to suffer grievously from their barbarous disposition. The western nations of Europe were soon aroused by the stories of the returning pilgrims, who had suffered so terribly at the hands of the cruel Turks.

Pope Urban II. accordingly headed a great religious movement to deliver the Holy Land from the power of the Infidels. He proclaimed the First Crusade, preached on its behalf at the Council of Clermont in Southern France, and aroused great enthusiasm among the vast audience who listened to his burning words. "God wills it!" cried his listeners, and, from this time, these words became the watchword of the Crusaders.

The First Crusade was composed almost entirely of Frenchmen or Normans, but it has some interest for us, inasmuch as Duke Robert mortgaged his Norman Duchy to William II. of England, so that he might take part in it. It marched in four divisions to

Constantinople, one from the west of the Rhine, one from the north, and another from the south of France, and the fourth from Southern Italy.

The year before their march, a great crowd of unarmed peasants and rabble of the lower orders had been led in advance by Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless. They expected in their simple faith to be able to take possession of the Holy Land by miracle, but they perished miserably of hunger and by the sword of the Turks in Asia Minor.

Having arrived at Constantinople the First Crusaders had much trouble in arranging matters, and when they got free from this city they met with great suffering and loss in their march through Asia Minor. At length they reached the great fortress of Antioch in the north of Palestine, and succeeded in taking it after a long siege and heavy losses.

No sooner had Antioch fallen to the Crusaders than they in turn were besieged by a great army of Turks. The latter, however, were forced to retire, but not before they had inflicted further losses on the Christians. The Crusaders now marched on Jerusalem, and they took it by storm from the Saracens of Egypt in the summer of 1099, three years after their departure from Europe.

The army of the Crusaders was now reduced to less than one-tenth the number with which they were said to have left Europe, and nearly all of these returned home on the capture of Jerusalem. A small garrison was left to hold the conquests, and small bodies of knights arrived every year to make their own crusades. At the close of the First Crusade the conquests were



ST. SOPHIA, CONSTANTINOPLE.

organised as the kingdom of Jerusalem, and Godfrey of Bouillon, the ablest and the least selfish of the leaders, was chosen king.

Europe was aroused to the Second Crusade in 1147, about fifty years after the first. This Crusade was led by Conrad III., King of Germany, and Louis VII., King of France. They tried to reach Palestine by the overland route, but failed to force their way through Asia Minor, and made the last part of the journey by water. An attempt to capture Damascus failed, and so the Crusade really accomplished nothing.

A little later the great Sultan Saladin captured Jerusalem, and this was the means of organising the Third Crusade, which was the most brilliant and the best known of all the Wars of the Cross. The Emperor Frederick, Philip Augustus of France, and Richard the Lion-Hearted of England were its leaders. Frederick died on the way, Richard and Philip quarrelled, and the king of France returned home. The strong fortress of Acre was captured from the Saracens, little else was accomplished, and Jerusalem remained in the hands of Saladin.

The Fourth Crusade started almost immediately on the failure of the third. It was proclaimed by Innocent III., the most powerful of the Popes, and was organised with the highest hopes of success. As far as rescuing Palestine was concerned, it was a failure; and, as Englishmen had little share in this enterprise, we need not say more about it.

The later Crusades are of little interest. The Emperor Frederick II. recovered Jerusalem by a treaty, but it was retained only a short time. Just before

the middle of the thirteenth century, Louis IX. of France made an attack on Egypt in the hope that he might by this means conquer Palestine. He was quite unsuccessful; and his attack on the Turks in Tunis, twenty years later, marks the end of the regular Crusades.

Other efforts continued to be made by various individuals for some time, but, as far as Europe was concerned, its monarchs and its people could no longer be aroused to take any interest in these expeditions. In the meantime other interests had arisen, and the spirit of the world had changed, largely owing to the influence of the Crusades themselves.

Now we shall be in a position to consider the results of the Crusades; for these wars had a most profound effect on the people of Europe. The Crusaders were brought into contact with better civilisations than their own, and thus they discovered that they had much to learn. Before the age of the Crusades had closed, there was a great improvement in all branches of learning, and, as a consequence, some of the great universities were founded.

Perhaps an even more important effect of the Crusades was the stimulus they gave to commerce. Of course there had been commerce since the days of



KNIGHT TEMPLAR.

the Romans, but, in the countries on the west of Europe, it had been scanty and irregular. The Crusades created a strong demand for the transportation both of men and goods. They introduced a number of new articles, such as silk, sugar, spices, and precious stones, to the notice of the western nations, and for them there was at once a great demand. They also brought the merchants into touch with new people with whom to trade, and thus the knowledge of commercial routes and the science of navigation were improved.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE WINNING OF THE GREAT CHARTER.

WHEN Richard I. died in 1199, his brother John followed him on the throne and reigned till 1216. They were seventeen years of great trouble in England, during which the great sovereignty built up by Henry II. utterly broke down. Normandy, Maine, and Anjou were wrested from John by Philip of France, and only Aquitaine remained to him on the other side of the Channel. John was a vile man and weak ruler, and, owing to his oppression and evil-doing, the barons and people joined in resistance to him.

We often find in history that the ill-doing of a sovereign is the cause of some great reforms. The tyranny and oppression of a monarch sometimes unite both nobles and people in a common cause. It was so in the case of John. A worse king there could

not be, yet it was in his reign that the greatest charter of English liberty was passed.

The quarrel between John and the barons arose in this way. John summoned the barons to follow him over sea to reconquer his French dominions, but they refused, saying they owed service to him in England, but not in foreign lands. It was Stephen Langton who placed himself at the head of the barons, and, under his wise leadership, they triumphed in their opposition to John's unjust demands.

Langton called the barons to a gathering at St. Paul's, and it was resolved to make certain demands, based on the pledges of Henry I. From London, Langton hastened to the king, whom he met at Northampton, and wrested from him a promise to deal with the barons by process of law and not by arms. It was evident,



EFFIGY OF JOHN.
On his Tomb in Winchester Cathedral.

however, that John did not mean to keep his promise.

Accordingly, at the end of 1214, the nobles secretly met at St. Edmundsbury, and were resolute in their determination to bring matters to a crisis. If John refused to restore their liberties, they swore to make



ABBOT'S BRIDGE, ST. EDMUNDSBURY. Early Thirteenth Century.

war on him till he confirmed them by a charter, and they parted with the determination to raise forces with the purpose of presenting their demands at Christmas.

John knew nothing of the coming storm, and during the next few weeks he did his best to strengthen his position. But in January, 1215, the barons were ready to act, and they appeared in arms to lay their demands before the king. John was taken by surprise, and he

asked for a truce till Easter-tide. He spent the interval in offering freedom to the Church, and even took vows as a Crusader, against whom war was a sacrilege.

It was all in vain. John saw that it was useless to resist the demands of the barons, for the whole nation was against him. Perhaps we ought to mention that a few of the older nobles stood by their king, and that William Marshal, Earl of Pembroke, clung to John, hoping that he might be a mediator between the despotic monarch and the outraged people.

When John heard the demands of the barons he was furious. "Why do they not ask for my kingdom?" he cried. "I will never grant such liberties as will make me a slave!" The country then rose as one man at his refusal. On May 9th the barons under Robert Fitz Walter marched from Stamford to London. The gates of the city were thrown open and Fitz Walter was declared "Marshal of the Army of God and Holy Church." Exeter and Lincoln followed this example, and promises of aid came to the barons from Scotland and Wales.

The few nobles who had faithfully clung to John now yielded to the "Army of God," and even William Marshal advised him to accept the charter. Full of wrath, John bowed to necessity and called the barons to a conference on an island in the Thames between Windsor and Staines, near a marshy meadow by the river side—the meadow of Runnymede. The king encamped on one bank of the river, while the barons met on the other. Their chosen representatives met on June 15th on the island between them;



WILLIAM MARSHAL.

From his Tomb in the Temple Church,
London.

and on that memorable day the Great Charter was discussed and agreed to by John.

One copy of the Great Charter still remains in the British Museum. It is injured by age and fire, but the royal seal still hangs from the stained and shrivelled parchment. No Englishman can look upon this Charter without feelings of reverence, for it recalls the long struggle our forefathers waged to secure the freedom we now enjoy. Speaking generally, the Charter deals with the rights of Englishmen, their right to justice and to good government, and to protection of person and property.

Let us read one of the most famous articles of this Charter. It runs thus : " No freeman shall be seized or imprisoned, or dispossessed, or outlawed, or in any

way brought to ruin: we will not go against any man nor send against him, save by legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land." Another runs: "To no man will we sell, or deny, or delay right or justice." Thus the Great Charter recognised the equality of all, rich and poor, in the eye of the law.

Then it was ordered that judges were to hold their circuits four times a year, and that no taxes should be imposed except by the common council of the realm. To this council it was provided that the prelates and barons should be summoned by special writ, and all tenants-in-chief through the sheriffs.

The Charter also dealt with the privileges of London and other towns. "Let the City of London," said the charter, "have all its old liberties, and its free customs, as well by land as by water. Besides this, we will and grant that all other cities, and boroughs, and towns, and ports have all their liberties and free customs."

These and many other subjects were dealt with, and a council of twenty-five barons was chosen to enforce on John the observance of the Charter. Finally, the Charter was published throughout the whole country, so that its provisions might be known by all men.

When John found that the barons were ready to make war on him if he did not observe the Charter, his rage knew no bounds. He flung himself on the floor, and, in his fury, he even gnawed sticks and straw. When his anger had passed away, he determined to bring over foreign troops and meet the barons in battle. Thereupon the barons invited Louis of France to come and be their king in place of John.

Louis accepted the invitation, and on coming to England, he soon received the submission of the larger part of the country. John, however, kept the field and even won some successes. One day as he was crossing the Wash with his army, the tide rose suddenly and swept away his baggage with the royal treasures. John escaped with great difficulty, and, seized with a fever, men carried him on a litter to Newark, where he died. Men said of John, "Foul as it is, hell itself is defiled by the fouler presence of John," and after this long interval we are forced to the conclusion that John deserved this terrible verdict.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE FIRST ENGLISH PARLIAMENT.

IN the last chapter we read of the winning of the Great Charter from John, one of our worst kings, and we found that he did not mean to be faithful to his promises. We shall now consider the reign of his son Henry III., which lasted from 1216 to 1272. It will be interesting to notice that, even as Langton headed the barons and forced John to sign the Charter, so Henry III. was forced by his barons, under the leadership of Simon de Montfort, to agree to the meeting of a National Council. We shall not do amiss if we consider only two subjects in Henry's long reign, viz., the origin of our present Houses of Parliament and the Coming of the Friars.

When Henry III. came to the throne he was a mere boy ; consequently some guardians were appointed to carry on the government. Peter des Roches, a foreigner, was the king's guardian ; while Pandulf, the Papal Legate, Hubert de Burgh, the Justiciar, and Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury, were the other members of the ministry. The barons, who had joined Louis of France, now came over to the side of their own king : and Louis departed to France on receiving a sum of £5000.

When Henry grew to manhood he showed himself less of a tyrant than his father, but he was a weak and heartless spendthrift. He wasted money on himself, and squandered the treasure of the country on a swarm of foreigners. They were friends of his mother and his wife, and for them he seemed to think that nothing in England was too good.

Fortunately for England the nation at large opposed his unwise policy, and nearly the whole of his reign was a struggle between the king and his people for the confirmation of the rights declared in the Great Charter. The misgovernment and trouble ended at last in the great outbreak called the Barons' War.

Notwithstanding all the political trouble, the reign of Henry III. was a time of great progress, both socially and religiously. England grew rich and more vigorous, and the universities became great centres of learning and education. Merton College at Oxford was the first college which existed in the university, and its founder, Merton, desired not only to make it a place of study, but also a place of training, so

that the students might love learning for its own sake. In this reign art flourished, and it is probable that the thirteenth century was one of the most important in our history as far as church-building is concerned. Lincoln Cathedral, Beverley Minster,



BUILDINGS OF MERTON COLLEGE, OXFORD. Early Fourteenth Century.
Skelton, "*Oxonia Antiqua Restaurata*."

Salisbury Cathedral, and, greatest of all, Westminster Abbey, were built during Henry's reign.

But above all, religion was revived in this reign by the energy of the Friars. In 1221, the Dominicans arrived in England, and three years later they were followed by the Franciscans. They may be considered as the missionaries to the neglected spots of England, and there is no doubt that they worked with zeal and success. The Dominicans taught and

preached to the more intelligent, while the Franciscans appealed to the poorest and most ignorant.

The Franciscans did not build their convents in the towns, but they made choice of the low, swampy, and undrained spots outside the towns. Their buildings were as poor as those in the surrounding districts, and their living and lodging were no better than those of the poorest among whom they settled. These devoted Friars ate no more than they actually received, such as meal, salt, figs, apples, stale beer, or milk. Whatever the weather, and however rough the way, they went forth on their errands of mercy. They traversed the muddy streets, bare-footed and bare-headed, often leaving the prints of their bleeding feet upon the roads.



A FRANCISCAN.

Drawn by Matthew Paris, MS. C.C.C. Camb. xvi.

The Friars not only taught the people by their lives of self-denial, but they also won the people's love by

their deeds of charity. Their influence was felt everywhere, and one of their pupils, Simon de Montfort, worked a great change in the government of England. Although he was not an Englishman by birth, he loved the land of his adoption, and it is owing to the labours of Earl Simon of Leicester that we owe some of our present privileges.

It is not necessary to go through the events in the early life of Simon, as they have been dealt with in another book. Here we need only consider the results of his efforts. When the long struggle between Henry and the nobles drove the nation to arms, Simon de Montfort put himself at the head of the patriotic barons, and they resolved to force the king to rule according to law.

For some time the barons were successful, and when Henry III. was defeated at Lewes the government of England passed into the hands of Earl Simon. It was then decided that there should be three Electors, including Simon, and, nine Councillors, besides the Ministers of State: and to keep these Councillors in order, Parliament was called in 1265. In this Parliament there were not only barons, bishops, and abbots, but each county sent its chosen knights, and certain towns, for the first time, sent two representatives.

Although it would hardly be correct to say that this formed our first Parliament as we now understand it, yet it was the first Council which saw the assembling of the representatives of the towns and counties. The credit for the first complete Parliament really belongs to the reign of Edward I. We must, however, look upon this meeting of the National Council at West-

minster as the origin of our present Parliament : and for its assembling we must give much if not all of the credit to Earl Simon.

Simon did not long survive his triumph. Strife broke out among the barons, and Prince Edward, son of Henry III., marched against Earl Simon, and met him at Evesham. Simon fought bravely : his horse was killed under him, and his eldest son was among the first to fall. When he heard this sad news, he said, " Is it so ? Then it is time for me to die." He fought with redoubled fury, but, when he had nearly gained the crest of the hill, a foot soldier pierced him in the back. With the words " Thank God ! " on his lips, the patriot leader passed away. His memory was long cherished, and he was counted as a saint by the common people, for whom he had given his life.

The cause for which Simon fought was not lost, for when Edward I. became king in 1272 he ruled justly and nobly. It was Edward who first made laws in what has ever since been called Parliament. For this purpose he called on the shires and larger towns to choose men to represent them in the Great Council. The shires sent knights and the towns sent burgesses, and these, added to the nobles and bishops, made up Parliament.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE THREE EDWARDS.

THE reign of Edward I. begins a new era in our history, and we must think of him as a truly English

king, coming after a succession of foreign kings. From the commencement of this reign in 1272 to the death of Edward III. in 1377 a period of more than one hundred years is covered : and although much of this time was occupied with fighting at home and in France, yet it was a period of great social and commercial progress. In this chapter we shall glance at the leading events in the reigns of the three Edwards, and in the two following chapters we shall consider the growth of trade, and the trouble caused by the Black Death.

Edward I. was one of England's greatest kings, for not only was he brave and truthful, but, like the great Alfred, he strove to give his people good laws. While he ruled wisely in his own realms, Edward aimed in his early days to bring about a union of England, Scotland, and Wales. Indeed, he succeeded in conquering Wales and uniting it to the English crown ; and, later on, he was drawn in like fashion to attempt the union of Scotland with England.

Before the time of Edward I. the Welsh princes had been in the habit of doing homage to the English kings ; but when Edward became king, Llewelyn, the native Prince of Wales, refused to do this. This led Edward to begin the Conquest of Wales. When the English army appeared in Wales, Llewelyn submitted, and Edward generously forgave the rebellious prince.

After a few years, however, Llewelyn's brother David raised another rebellion, and, as a result, Edward undertook a second campaign. The war ended in the death of Llewelyn and the capture of David, who suffered a traitor's death. Edward then built strong

castles in Wales, gave the Welsh good government, and introduced English laws.



EDWARD I.

In his attempt to annex Scotland, Edward found he had a very difficult task, for the Scots resisted to the end, and the king's last days were embittered by knowing that his work was not completed. The

Scotch war began in this way. There was a contest among the Scotch lords for the crown of Scotland; but, of the many claimants, only three had really good claims. They were John Balliol, Robert Bruce, and John Hastings; and, after due consideration, Edward gave the Scotch throne to John Balliol, on conditions that made him a vassal of England.

In course of time Balliol revolted, and then Edward drove him from his realm and conquered Scotland. But the Scots were as stout-hearted and fond of freedom as the English themselves: and they soon rose under William Wallace, and drove out the English. Edward marched a great army into Scotland, and won a decisive victory over Wallace at Stirling. The land was once more subdued, and after some time Wallace was betrayed into the hands of the English and put to death.

For a while all seemed quiet in Scotland: but in Edward's last years Robert Bruce came to the aid of the Scots. He was a baron both of England and Scotland, and claimed the Scotch crown, thus stirring up fresh resistance. Edward himself died as he marched against this new leader, but his troops defeated Bruce, who was obliged to wander over the land, closely pursued by the English.

After some years of this wandering life, the Scots gathered again round Bruce, and little by little, he won back the land from the English till only Stirling was left in their hands. Edward II. was at this time the English king, and, in character, he was the very opposite to Edward I. He was a weak and bad king, and gathered about him a number of favourites who led

him astray. Edward II., hearing that Stirling was in sore straits, led a great army to its relief. Bruce confronted him at Bannockburn, on the plain before Stirling, in the year 1314. A great battle ensued, and so overwhelming was the English defeat, that once again Scottish freedom was established.



STIRLING CASTLE. Slezer, "Theatrum Scotiae," 1693.

The victory at Bannockburn settled the question of Scotch independence, and, though the war lingered on into the reign of Edward III., no serious attempt was made to re-conquer Scotland. The reign of Edward II. ended in 1327. In that year a Parliament met at Westminster and resolved to depose the king, because he had neglected his kingly duties and had lost Scotland. He was sent to Berkeley Castle, where he died in a mysterious manner in September, 1327.

The reign of Edward III. is one of the longest as well as one of the most memorable in our history. Edward III. secured to his people firm government equal justice, and a national parliament, and, by these means, England sprang suddenly forward as one of the leading powers of the world. It won its first great victories in France, and it produced its first great singer, Geoffrey Chaucer.

The war with Scotland had brought with it a quarrel with the French kings, who saw in the war between England and Scotland an opportunity for getting hold of Aquitaine, the only English possession left in France. Edward accordingly laid claim to the crown of France, in right of his mother, Isabella, who was the daughter of a French king, Philip the Fair. Thus began a war which lasted more than a hundred years.

When hostilities broke out, Edward had small success, as he trusted in foreign soldiers whom he hired. But at last he depended on English soldiers alone, and with an English army he marched upon Paris. He was forced, however, to fall back as far as the Somme, where he was nearly defeated. Fortunately, he found a ford, and was thus able to cross into Ponthieu, where he encamped at Crecy. The English were largely out-numbered by the French, but, owing to the shooting of the English archers, Edward won a great victory, and gained for England a war-like fame such as it had never known before.

The victory at Crecy was the first of a series of successes, so that in 1360 the French were glad to come to terms of peace with their enemy. Accordingly, the Treaty of Bretigni was signed, and the English were

acknowledged as the rulers of Aquitaine, Gascony, Ponthieu, Guisnes, and Calais. Although the war was renewed, we need not follow it here, but in a future chapter we shall deal with the conclusion of the Hundred Years' War.

If the French war brought some glory, it also brought with it much suffering; and both England and France shared in the terrible scourge which was called the Black Death. The war also promoted an increase of English trade, and in the next chapter we will consider the coming of the Flemings and the manufacture of wool, which produced a great increase in wealth.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE GROWTH OF ENGLISH TRADE, OR THE COMING OF THE FLEMINGS.

You will probably remember that one of the results of the Crusades was the increase in English trade, and also that John in the Great Charter declared that all merchants should have safety and security in going out of and coming into the land. The Great Charter further enacted that no fine could be imposed on a merchant to the destruction of his merchandise; and it was also provided that a uniform system of weights and measures should be established throughout the kingdom.

These facts show us that a great change was passing over England. In early times the English were an

agricultural and not a manufacturing people. Even



KING OF FRANCE (late Thirteenth Century MS. Roy. I.A. xxii.).

in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries most articles of clothing, except those produced in the homes of the

people, were imported from Flanders, France, and Germany. The great staple of England was wool, and in the reigns of the Edwards it was the basis of English wealth. So large were the quantities sent abroad that an old English writer says: "The ribs of all people throughout the world are kept warm by the fleeces of English wool."

Now the very fact that we exported so much wool shows the smallness of our manufactures. The immense value of the export of wool is seen from a statement made to Edward I., who was assured by the nobles that the wool exported was equal to half of the land in value. Thus it came to pass that the wool and its growers were on one side of the English Channel, and the skilled workmen who dyed and wove it into cloth were on the other. When war broke out and the communication between the two shores was interrupted, great distress was caused in Flanders by the stoppage of the supply of English wool.

On one occasion, when the export of wool from England was prohibited, the manufacturing population of Flanders was reduced to hunger and despair. Of course it had also a similar effect on the English wool-growers, who lost the usual market for their produce. Hence it is interesting to note how closely England and Flanders were connected, more especially in the reigns of the Edwards and Henrys. Thus it came about that the policy of our kings was affected by the friendship of Flanders, which, in like manner, depended on the produce of English wool.

The English breeds of sheep were so famous that it was forbidden by law to sell or export them; but

some enterprising people on the Continent, living in the Low Countries, set up staples or markets to receive the English wool, to manufacture it, and then to sell it to England and other countries as cloth. These people were called Flemings, and of all the inhabitants of Northern Europe they were the most skilful workmen in woollen fabrics, and their towns became famous mainly owing to the woollen trade.

In the wars which Edward III. made against France, he first took care to secure the good will of Flanders, and he paid most of his military expenses by means of taxes on wool. The brilliant victory at Crecy would not have been gained, unless England had possessed the means of putting a strong army in the field, and the means of doing this were provided by wool.

But, in course of time, English people learned to make up the wool produced by their sheep into cloth as good as that of Flanders; and we find that gradually, but steadily, England became less and less a wool-exporting country, and more and more a cloth-exporting country, with valuable manufactures of its own. Let us see how this came about.

It naturally occurred to the English kings that it would be of great advantage to this country to have the wool made into cloth, by the hands of their own people, instead of sending it abroad for this purpose. The change began in the reign of Edward III., who, in 1331, invited John Kemp of Flanders and other weavers, fullers, and dyers to come over and settle in this country. The prospect of constant employment and good wages attracted to our land a large number

of Flemings who settled in London, Kent, Norfolk, Devon, Somerset, Yorkshire, Lancashire, and Westmoreland.

This peaceful invasion of the Flemings was, in some respects, even more important than the Norman Conquest, for it brought trade and prosperity to England; and, for the next three or four hundred years, the rise of many towns was chiefly owing to the coming of the Flemings. Edward III. was true to his promise, and he did all he could to encourage these foreigners; and we are told that he himself wore woollen clothing, and passed a law forbidding his people to wear any but English cloth.

Many of these towns in which the Flemings settled are no longer of importance, owing to various inventions and other causes. Towns in the east of England once famous for their woollen goods have declined, and the manufacture of wool is now mainly confined to Yorkshire. However, traces of the Flemings may still be seen in the names of the people, in their speech, and in some of our customs. Even to this day we retain the Flemish Ell in our Cloth Measure of Length.

Now, just as the Flemings taught the English how to manufacture wool, so, too, foreign merchants taught our people to undertake foreign trade. During the early centuries of our history nearly all our foreign trade was in the hands of the traders of Venice, Genoa, and the Netherlands. In those early days our English traders did not venture into the Mediterranean, and consequently depended on the arrival of ships from Venice which brought cottons, silks, velvets, spices,

and precious stones. These foreign ships used to stop at Southampton, Rye, and Sandwich; and it was not till 1587 that their last visit was paid to our shores.

Let us remember, then, that although the reign of Edward III. will ever be glorious owing to the great victories of Crecy and Poitiers, yet it is still more memorable owing to the rapid increase in English commerce. In his reign there was also a terrible disaster, which for a time threatened to overwhelm the nation; but when we come in the next chapter to consider the Black Death, we shall find that it was the cause of the emancipation of the English peasants from the tyranny of their masters.

CHAPTER XX.

THE BLACK DEATH.

THE outbreak of the Plague, or the Black Death, is the central fact in the reign of Edward III.; and, in some respects, it may be considered the most important economic event in our modern history. In this chapter we shall consider the origin, the nature, and the ravages of this terrible scourge, and then in the following chapter we shall deal with its results as seen in the revolt of the peasants and their subsequent improvement.

The origin of the Plague is mysterious, and by some it has been traced to China. Whether this be so or not, it is a fact that all the plagues that have



Photo Valentine & Sons Ltd. 1900.

RYE FROM THE SOUTH-WEST.

visited Europe have had their cradle in the Far East. As early as 1333 people in England had heard of the ravages of the Plague in Central Asia ; but Englishmen thought little of it while it was so far off.

In 1347 the Black Death had reached Constantinople, which was then a great commercial city trading with the Far East. The destroyer followed the course of commerce along the shores of the Mediterranean, sometimes pausing on its way, but always making steady progress westwards. Then it reached the north-western countries of Europe, and leaped over to Greenland, only to return to the Continent, making its course through Norway, Sweden, and on to Russia. We need not dwell upon the ruin wrought by the Plague in Europe, except to remark that some of the great cities were almost depopulated, losing three-fourths or more of their inhabitants.

It came to England soon after the brilliant campaign of Edward in France. Only a short interval elapsed after the capture of Calais, when the prosperity of England was turned into mourning, and our nation was brought almost to the brink of ruin.

It is impossible to say exactly what were the causes of the Black Death, but there seems no doubt that it owed its origin to the lazy, filthy habits of the people in eastern lands. It was also attributed to parching droughts, which were followed by convulsions of the earth and crackings of its surface, from which there arose a poisonous vapour into the atmosphere.

In those days people did not know how to cope with such a disease, and in most instances they were panic-stricken when it seemed to be advancing to their

destruction in the form of a thick, stinking mist. In some rare and frightful cases the victim fell down and died without any apparent warning; but in most cases the attack began with shiverings and bristling of the



SANDWICH.

Photo. Valentine & Sons, Ltd., Dundee

hair, followed by a burning fever. Then boils were rapidly formed, which were the forerunners of the death of the poor victim.

The terror of the Plague was everywhere. Often men became so depressed by anticipation that they were already half dead before they were attacked. Then think of the fear of desertion, for who would dare to tend or nurse a dying friend when the Black

Death was lurking in his dying sigh or in the last grasp of his hand? Thus the nearest and dearest were separated, and the sick were left to die alone and be buried by anyone in some unknown grave. In many, many cases people wandered away from human habitations, only to perish miserably in the fields or in the forest.

One of our poets has written a poem descriptive of the terror of the Black Death, and as he so vividly depicts the ravages of the Plague we give the second verse :

The heart of man at the name
To a ball of ice shrinks in
With hope, surrendering life :—
The husband looks on the wife,
Reading the tokens of doom in the frame,
The pest-boil hid in the skin,
And flees and leaves her to die.
Fear-sick, the mother beholds
In her child's pure crystalline eye
A dull shining, a sign of despair.
Lo ! the heavens are poison, not air ;
And they fall as when lambs in the pasture
With a moan that is hardly a moan,
Drop, whole flocks, where they stand ;
And the mother lays her, alone,
Slain by the touch of her nursing hand,
Where the household before her is strown.
Earth, Earth, open and cover thy dead !
For they are smitten and fall who bear
The corpse to the grave with a prayerless prayer,
And thousands are crushed in the common bed :—
“ Is it Hell that breathes with an adder's breath ? ”
“ Is it the day of doom,” men cry, “ the Judge that cometh ? ”
“ 'Tis the Black Death, God help us !
The black, black Death.”

The Black Death first made its appearance in Dorsetshire in the month of August, 1348; after three months it reached London. A writer who lived at this time says that "many villages and hamlets were desolated, without a house being let in them, all those who dwelt in them being dead." The country places were soon silenced, and the carcasses of sheep, horses, and oxen lay rotting in the fields, untouched by dogs or birds of prey.

In London, we are told, the streets and public places were for a time "alive with death," for cart-loads of corpses were being constantly hurried along to the graveyards; but as time went on there were not enough living to bury the dead. An old writer states that 50,000 bodies of the dead were buried in one place in London, and we may well believe that more than half the whole population of England died of the Black Death.

The rich suffered as severely as the poor, and in one abbey in Lincolnshire all the inmates died of the Plague except the abbot and prior. No Parliament could meet and no courts of justice could be opened. One of the chroniclers says, "Sheep and cattle went wandering over fields and through crops, and there was no one to go and drive or gather them, so that the number cannot be reckoned which perished in the ditches in every district for lack of herdsmen."

In those days people did not have pure water to drink, nor did they know the importance of living in healthy places, so that we need not be surprised that so many died of the Black Death. England has since been visited by plagues and pestilences, but none has wrought so much havoc as the Black Death of 1348-9.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE REVOLT OF THE PEASANTS.

WHEN the Plague had run its course, it was very difficult to find labourers to till the land, and, as a result, those labourers who were left were able to demand double or treble the former wages. Then Parliament foolishly interfered and passed some laws relating to the labourers. A scale of wages was fixed, and a penalty was imposed upon all men who left their masters to seek work elsewhere. But it was soon found impossible to prevent the labourers escaping from one county to another, or from one town to another in the hope of getting better wages.

The failure of Parliament to deal with the question in this way led to the passing of an Act in 1381, which ordained that a labourer, when caught escaping, should be imprisoned unless he agreed to go back to his former employer. If he would not consent, then he should "be burned in the forehead with an iron formed and made to the letter F," in token of falsity.

All this trouble at home was increased by the shame of defeat on the Continent. England was thus well-nigh exhausted by the suffering caused by war and pestilence. Then France took advantage of England's position, and refused to fulfil the terms of peace. The result was that Edward III. lost all his French possessions except Calais, and English commerce was ruined. Money was squandered in efforts to regain the old supremacy in the field; and the pressure of taxation drove England to despair.

It was in the midst of all this distress that Edward III. died, in 1377, five months after his Jubilee. He was succeeded by his grandson, Richard II., who was but a mere boy. England wanted a strong ruler at this crisis, but the government was so weak that general disorder ensued. The French war went on, and disaster followed disaster. Parliament was thus driven to raise money by a tax, not as formerly on lands, but on every man and woman personally, "by head," and hence was called a poll-tax.

The third imposition of this poll-tax in 1380 brought matters to a crisis. There was so much harshness shown in collecting this tax that the discontent of the peasants, which had been smouldering for the last thirty years, now broke out in the Peasants' Revolt.

The revolt was mainly in the east of England, from Yorkshire to Hampshire; but the two counties where the rebellion raged most fiercely were Essex and Kent. The reason for this was probably owing to the fact that for many years the preachers, trained by John Wyclif, had been going through the villages in the east of England, stirring up the peasants to a sense of their oppression.

A preacher named John Ball fanned the discontent into a flame of rebellion. He espoused the cause of the poor, and advised them to rise and shake off the yoke of their oppressors. In simple, yet stirring words, he told the villagers that things would never go well in England so long as goods were not in common, or while there were villeins and gentlemen. He contrasted the velvet and furs of the rich with the

rags of the poor : and he cried shame on the landlords who had wine and fair bread, while the labourers had only oat-cake, straw, and water. "Again," said John Ball, "they have leisure and fine houses ; we have pain and labour, the rain and the wind in the fields. And yet it is of us and our toil that these men hold their state."



PREACHING IN THE OPEN-AIR, A.D. 1338-1344. MS. Bodl. Misc. 264.

It was in June, 1381, that the Peasants' Revolt broke out in Kent. It has since been called by some "Wat Tyler's Rebellion," from Walter the Tyler, of Maidstone, who put himself at the head of the rebels. His action was determined by the following incident. On June 5th one of the collectors of the hated poll-tax called at his house in Dartford and insulted his daughter. Wat Tyler's anger was at once aroused, and he struck the collector so that he died.

The county of Kent rose in arms, and Wat Tyler placed himself at the head of 100,000 rebels, who entered Canterbury and released John Ball from his prison.

Then passing through Maidstone and Gravesend, they crossed Blackheath and soon reached Southwark. When they had gained the other side of the Thames, they burnt John of Gaunt's Palace of the Savoy, and killed all the lawyers and Flemings whom they could find.

The rebels entered the City, and on June 13 they encamped at a spot east of London, known as Mile End, where they were joined by more insurgents from Essex. The next morning, Richard II., then a lad of sixteen, met some of them in conference, and, on promising to satisfy their demands, they promised to disperse. But during the king's absence some of them burst into the Tower, where, among others, they murdered the Archbishop of Canterbury.

In the meantime, Richard rode round the northern wall of the city, and on the morning of June 15th the young king met Wat Tyler and a body of thirty thousand Kentishmen at Smithfield. Hot words passed between the king's attendants and the leader of the rebels, who advanced to confer with the king. A threat from Wat Tyler brought on a brief struggle, in which the Mayor of London, William Walworth, struck him with his dagger to the ground.

The angry crowd at once shouted, "Kill! kill! they have slain our captain!" But Richard faced the rebels with considerable courage. "What, my friends," said Richard, "would you shoot your king? Do not grieve for the death of that traitor. Follow me, and I will be your leader, and you shall have whatever you please to ask."

The hopes of the peasants centred in the young king, who was allowed to return in triumph to

London. True to his promise he gave letters of pardon to the Kentish rebels, who dispersed to their homes. Richard's pledge, however, did not



TOWN WALL, CANTERBURY. Built c. 1375-1380.

please the nobles, who said that the king had no right to grant pardons without the consent of Parliament.

The pardons were, therefore, revoked, and all the leaders of the revolt were caught and hanged. Even John Ball, although a priest, was sent to the gallows. The revolt was put down with terrible bloodshed, and

it is reckoned that many thousands of peasants died in fight or by execution.

For a time it seemed that the peasants were crushed, yet in the end their cause triumphed. The landlords did not want another revolt, and so gradually the lot of the peasant was improved. Within fifty years of the Black Death the labourer was released from his bondage to the landlord, and he was allowed to carry his labour to the best market.

It is true that the troubles with the peasants were put down in Richard's reign, but England still continued at war with France. Besides this, Richard's misgovernment at last forced England to a general rising. He was driven from the throne; and his cousin, Henry, the son of John of Gaunt, was made king in his stead as **Henry IV.**

Henry's whole reign was a struggle against treason and revolt, and we hear of many difficulties with the Lollards, besides wars with the Scots and the Welsh. Indeed it was not till the reign of his son, Henry V., that England was again at peace, and then only for a short time.

Henry V. began to reign in 1413, and proved to be the most popular king who ever ruled in this country. From a very early age he was trained in arms, and when only fifteen he commanded an expedition against Owen Glendower, and one year later took part in the battle of Shrewsbury. Henry V., however, will always stand out in our history as the victor of Agincourt, and the account of that battle will be told in the next chapter.

CHAPTER XXII.

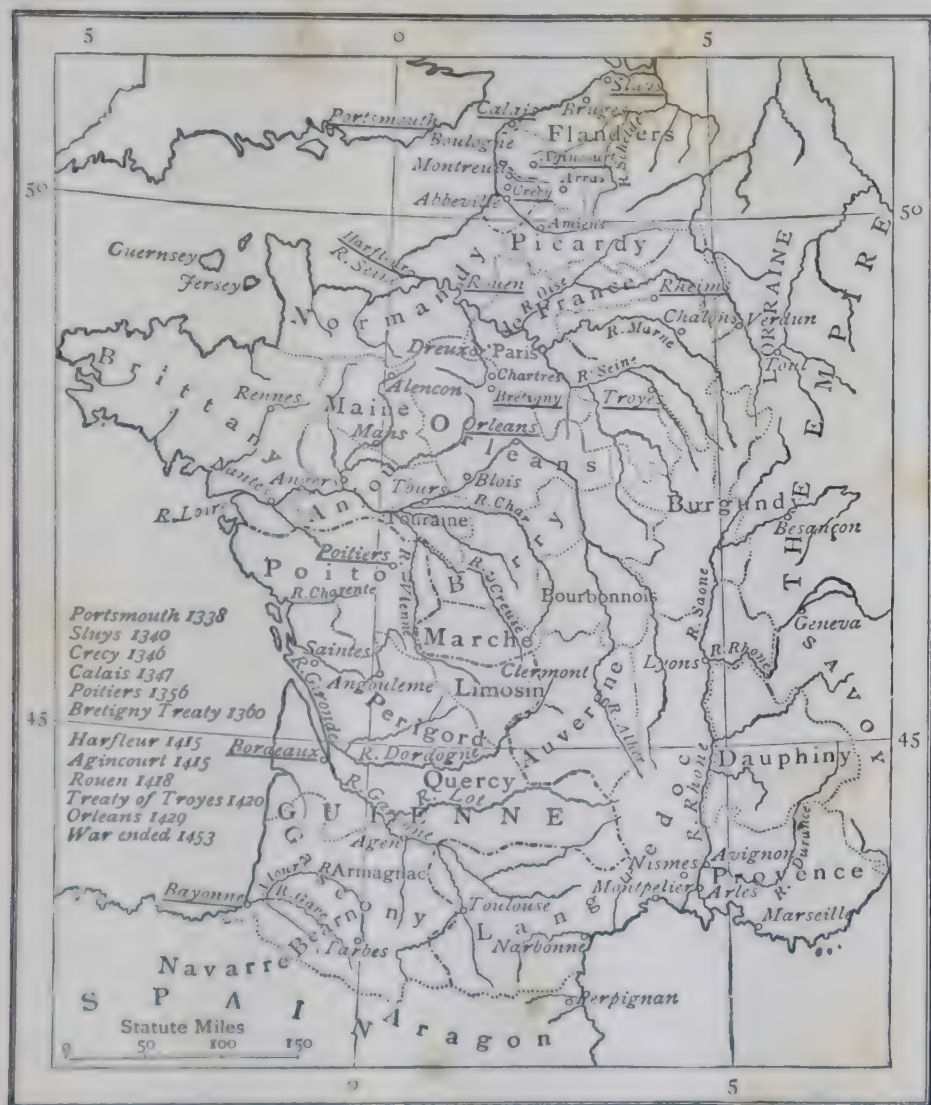
AGINCOURT AND ORLEANS, OR VICTORY
AND DISASTER.

THE two words at the head of this chapter recall to our minds a great victory and a disastrous defeat. The word Agincourt exercises a spell over our minds, and makes our hearts beat fast as we read of the splendid conduct of our English troops in the face of overwhelming odds. A very different picture is conjured up when we think of the disgraceful conduct of the English after Orleans, and how the brave Maid of Domremy was burnt as a witch in the market-place at Rouen.

Thus we may say that Agincourt stands for all that was best in our national character, while Orleans shows Englishmen in the worst light. Agincourt represents the English power at its height in France : Orleans stands for the time when English power was fast waning, and may be said to mark the period when the Hundred Years' War was almost at an end. And yet there was only an interval of fourteen years between Agincourt and Orleans. Let us see the cause of the victory, and then the events that led to defeat and disgrace.

Henry V. was anxious to strengthen his throne, and so, in 1415, he determined to revive the old quarrel with France and to regain the provinces lost in the later years of Edward III. The French offered Aquitaine as a compromise, but this was rejected by Henry. His first campaign against France commenced

in August, 1415, by the capture of Harfleur. Great sickness prevailed in the English camp, and Henry



FAMOUS BATTLES AND SIEGES OF THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.

was unable to undertake any great expedition. He resolved, however, to make his way to Calais, through the hostile provinces of Normandy, Picardy, and Artois.

The English army consisted of about 15,000 men, whereas the French army probably numbered 60,000, under the command of Constable D'Albret. The English were allowed to cross the river Somme, and then the French commander invited Henry to name a day for battle. Henry at once replied that he was always to be found in the field. For the next four days the French marched by the side of the English; and then, seizing what was thought a good opportunity, the Constable chose his position so as to cut off the English from the village of Agincourt.

The battle-field was a narrow valley, with woods on the east and west, while through it ran the road to Calais. The French were drawn up in three lines, and were heavily armed; whereas the English were in three divisions, and were mainly light-armed yeomen. Thus the English had the advantage, for the French could not use their artillery in so confined a place. Before the battle some negotiations were carried on, but they came to nothing. In the meantime, Henry sent some archers secretly through the wood to watch the left flank of the French army.

It was eleven o'clock on St. Crispin's Day, October 25th, 1415, when the order was given to the English to advance. The archers ran forward armed with stakes, which they fixed in the ground so as to form a palisade in front of them. Then with unerring aim they let fly their deadly arrows, and the French men-at-arms, who could not advance quickly over the soft ground, fell in great number. Meanwhile the French cavalry, in attempting a flank movement, were caught unawares by the archers in ambush. Their horses

became unmanageable, and they were thrown into confusion.

The French infantry, seeing the confusion, broke, and were pursued by the English archers, who had seized their swords and maces. The archers were then aided by the English men-at-arms, and the combined force attacked the second division of the French. The battle now raged more furiously, and the fight was more equal.

The Duke of Alençon on the French side, and Henry V. on the English, fought desperately, and for two hours the issue was uncertain. At length the Duke was slain, and the French gave way. A cry was now raised in the English army that more French troops were coming up in their rear; and, in the panic, Henry V. gave orders that all prisoners should be slain. As soon, however, as it was found that the supposed army was only a band of peasants, the order was withdrawn, but not before many Frenchmen had met their death.

In the meantime the third French division wavered and fled: and after three hours' fighting the victory of the English was assured. It is said that more than 10,000 French soldiers fell in that fight, and among them were 8000 nobles, knights, and squires.

The victory of Agincourt led Henry to continue the French war, and within the space of a few years all northern France was conquered. He was proceeding to the conquest of the south, when he was attacked by a fever which ended fatally. The crowns of England and France now passed to his child, Henry VI., but John, Duke of Bedford, carried on the French war.

France, south of the Loire, remained loyal to Charles VII., who was not yet crowned as King, but was known as the Dauphin. The Duke of Bedford saw that it would be necessary to take Orleans, if he



ROUEN.

wished to conquer the country south of the Loire. Accordingly he laid siege to Orleans in October, 1428, but owing to the size of the city it was almost impossible to maintain a strict blockade. A large French force harassed the besiegers, and in February, 1429, it seemed certain that Orleans must fall to the English.

Help came to the French from an unexpected quarter, for the sudden rise of Joan of Arc and the enthusiasm she created entirely changed the aspect of affairs.

Led by the Maid of Orleans, the French succeeded in raising the siege and entering the city. The English retired, and two days later they were defeated with considerable loss. In June, 1429, the Dauphin was crowned as Charles VII. at Rheims, and, having accomplished her mission, Joan now asked that she might return to her home at Domremy. This request was denied her, and, for a time, she continued to serve in the army. In an attack on Paris in September, 1429, the French were repulsed, and Joan was severely wounded. She recovered, but while engaged at Compiègne she was captured and imprisoned.

It is with sorrow that we record the selling of Joan to the English for a sum of money, and it is with a deeper shame that we tell of the burning of Joan by the English in the market-place of Rouen. After this deed of infamy, the English won no more victories in France, and of all their French possessions, Calais alone remained to them in 1453.

The Hundred Years' War was thus ended. It had been a long struggle, causing much misery; and although at times it brought some glory to our English arms, yet it was chequered with much disgrace.

CHAPTER XXIII.

YORKISTS AND LANCASTRIANS.

THE news of the English defeats in France caused great disorder in our country. Henry VI. was a very feeble king, and as a result of the misrule there

was much strife as to his successor on the throne. Matters came to a crisis in 1453, when the king began to show signs of mental weakness, and the country was seen to be divided into two parties. On the one hand, the Queen and the Duke of Somerset championed the cause of the king; while, on the other hand, there was a large party under the Duke of York and his partisans, who had made up their minds to get rid of the ruling family, and to appeal to the sword to settle the dispute.

The noblemen throughout the country began to arm their retainers, and in 1454 the Duke of York was appointed Protector. In the following year Henry VI. having regained his faculties, the Duke of York boldly disputed Henry's right to the crown, and claimed to be king. It is with this claim that the Wars of the Roses began. They were so called from the Yorkists having taken a white rose and the Lancastrians a red rose as their badge.

The first battle of the war was fought at St. Albans in 1455, and the last at Bosworth in 1485. Between these two dates as many as ten other battles took place, although there were long intervals of peace. The Duke of York claimed the throne by strict hereditary right, as being in direct descent from one of the sons of Edward III. The Lancastrians based their claim to the throne on possession, parliamentary title, and also as descendants of Edward III.

The Duke of York opened the campaign with success, but after several victories he was slain at Wakefield in 1460. The quarrel was now taken up by his eldest son, Edward, Earl of March, who gathered round him many of the barons, including the Earl of Warwick,



the mightiest of the English nobles. Thus aided, Edward was able to drive Henry from his throne, which he himself mounted as Edward IV.

The accession of Edward IV. was in 1461, and the first event of his reign was the bloodiest fight of the war. The battle of Towton was won after a great struggle by the Yorkists, and, as a result, the Lancastrian kings were declared usurpers; and nobles, who had taken the side of the Red Rose, were proclaimed traitors. Edward's position on the throne seemed quite secure, but owing to a quarrel with Warwick, the "King-Maker" was driven over to the side of the Lancastrians. Edward was now forced to fly to the Continent, and Henry VI. was once more placed on the throne.

The triumph of the Red Rose was short-lived, for Edward returned in a few months, having landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire. He lost no time in marching south, and engaged his opponent, Warwick, at Barnet on Easter Sunday, 1471. In this fight Warwick was defeated and slain. Edward's triumph was rendered still more complete, for three weeks later, at Tewkesbury, he defeated the Lancastrians, and the lad Edward, son of Henry VI., was cruelly murdered. The Lancastrian cause was now finally lost. Margaret was taken prisoner, and Henry VI. himself died a mysterious death soon after in the Tower.

From this moment Edward's reign was a peaceful one. He proved himself an able ruler, but, of course, the chief glory of his reign is the introduction of printing into England by William Caxton. Nothing shows more clearly how fast England was progressing, amidst

all the troubles of the time, than the steady advance in learning and culture, mainly owing to the printing press.

The Wars of the Roses were, however, not quite over. When Edward IV. died in 1483 he left behind him two sons, Edward and Richard, the one twelve, the other ten years old. Richard, Duke of Gloucester, was their only surviving uncle, and therefore their

it plesē ony man spirituel or temporel to bye ony
 es of two and thre comemoraciōs of salisbury use
 oryntid after the forme of this presēt lettre whiche
 wel and truly correct, late hym come to westmo/
 ster in to the almonestrye at the reed pale and he that
 ae them good chepe .-. .

Supplicatio lre cedula

CAXTON'S ADVERTISEMENT. Bodleian Library.

natural guardian; but there is little doubt that soon after his brother's death he thought of seizing the crown for himself.

He caused the two young princes to be imprisoned in the Tower, and then some of his friends declared him king as Richard III. One of his first acts on becoming king was to have his two nephews murdered in the Tower by Miles Forest and John Dighton. Richard III. only reigned two years, and, owing to his crimes, he lost the support of many of the old friends

of his house, who transferred their allegiance to Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, the foremost member of the Lancastrian party.

At this time Henry Tudor was living in exile in Brittany. He accepted an invitation to come over and dispute the crown with Richard III. Accordingly, he landed in the summer of 1485 at Milford Haven in Wales; and, after a somewhat roundabout march, he engaged Richard III. at Bosworth Field on August 22nd.

The battle was mainly a hand-to-hand encounter, and for some time the issue seemed uncertain. At a critical moment the Stanleys, with 5000 men, transferred their support from Richard to Henry. This really decided the fight. Richard, perceiving that he was betrayed, fought with renewed vigour, crying out, as he smote, "Treason! Treason!" A swift horse was brought to him, and he was advised to fly for his life. "Never!" cried Richard. "Not one foot will I fly so long as breath bides within my breast. Here will I end all my battles or my life. I will die King of England."

He did, indeed, sell his life as dearly as possible, and, after desperate efforts, he was overpowered and fell dead in the midst of his enemies. His crown was found on a hawthorn bush, and, dented and battered as it was, Sir William Stanley set it on Henry's head, amid ringing shouts of "God save King Henry!" Henry knelt down and returned thanks for his victory, and from this time he adopted as his badge the Crown in the May-bush.

The accession of Henry VII. brought the Wars of the Roses to an end. One great result of this

civil strife was the destruction of the old nobility and the steady rise of the commercial classes, who had taken but little part in the wars. Henry's aim as king was not only to give peace to the country, but to raise the power of the crown high above the barons, who had set up and put down kings. The reign of Henry VII. thus marks the time when the king was able to do almost anything he liked. He no longer feared the noble families, who had lost their power, and he very rarely summoned his Parliament to help him in his work of government.

CHAPTER XXIV.

ENGLAND AND DISCOVERY, OR THE NEW SPIRIT OF ENTERPRISE.

THE reign of Henry VII. marks a new departure in our history, and the close of the fifteenth century saw the two great discoveries of America in 1492, and of the Cape route to India in 1498. These geographical discoveries were so important, and so affected the future history of England, that we shall do well to connect the reign of Henry VII. with both these discoveries, although we must bear in mind that in neither case was the discovery entirely due to Englishmen.

Nothing shows more clearly the change which had passed over men's minds, after the long and exhausting Wars of the Roses, than the new spirit of adventure

and enterprise which manifested itself in the reign of the first Tudor king. Hitherto we have dealt with the history of the British Islands, but henceforward we shall have to consider the gradual expansion of the British Empire beyond the seas. We have watched the gradual progress of our country, and traced how its liberties were won and its freedom gained; now we shall also watch the growth of its external dominions. Just as we have seen that the English were lovers of law and liberty at home, so we shall find they also became the best colonising power.

The process of the expansion of Britain has been gradual but sure, until in this twentieth century the British Empire is the largest and most powerful the world has ever seen. There have often been failures and sometimes disaster, but from the time of the Tudors the development of the empire has continued. Sometimes these colonies have been founded by the enterprise and bravery of individuals; sometimes by companies to further trade; and sometimes by religious zealots to found a church in far-away lands. But whatever the motive, the British flag has always carried freedom and good government; and Britons can look with pride upon the great empire, which by the wisdom and courage of their forefathers has been built up for them.

When Henry VII. came to the throne he found England was weak and poor as a country; it was isolated from the Continent, and was backward in commerce and learning. For some years to come, England had to repair the waste of the Wars of the Roses, before it could enter into competition with such powers as Italy, Spain, Portugal, or France.



HENRY VII

Picture in the National Portrait Gallery

We must remember that England was largely dependent for much of its trade on Flanders and Italy. English woollen cloths were finished and dyed in Florence, while her shipping was carried on by



AN ENGLISH TRADER OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY. Bodl. MS.

Italian or Flemish sailors. The bankers in England were Lombards, and such things as books and weapons were manufactured abroad. It is true that Caxton had set up his printing press at Westminster, but the art of printing had flourished in Europe long before it came to England. In those days the Portuguese and

the Italians led the way in maritime enterprise, but they were soon followed by the French and Spaniards. Thus England did not enter into the race till after all these people had been in the front rank as discoverers.

At the end of the fifteenth century the map of the world showed only one hemisphere, for the Western Hemisphere was totally unknown. Much of the Eastern Hemisphere was wrapped in mystery, and even Africa was only known in part, its coast being traced only as far as the end of the Red Sea on one side and to Cape Nun on the other. It is to the Portuguese that we owe the discovery of the southern half of what was long called the Dark Continent, and it was a Portuguese sailor who first rounded the Cape of Good Hope.

It is interesting to note that Columbus sent his brother to invite the assistance of Henry VII. in fitting out an expedition to discover America, and there is reason to believe that the English king was disposed to consider the project. However, it was left to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain to furnish Columbus with three ships, and thus give him the means of carrying out his desire. It was on October 11th, 1492, that Columbus reached the Bahamas and afterwards Hayti, although he did not discover the mainland.

When Columbus returned to Spain after his discovery of the Western Continent, he was everywhere received with acclamation, and royal favours were bestowed on him. He subsequently made other voyages of discovery and landed on the Bahamas. At length, however, he seems to have fallen into disfavour, for an

order was sent to bring him home. Accordingly, messengers were despatched, and the great navigator, loaded with chains, returned to Spain and spent his last days in prison and in disgrace.

Now let us leave Columbus and his work and see what England was doing in the way of discovery. At this time there lived at Bristol a sailor named John Cabot. He was by birth a Genoese, but he had lived in Venice for some years before coming to England. While residing at Bristol, his son Sebastian was probably born about 1477. In 1497, Henry VII. granted a patent for western discovery to father and son, and under the king's protection the two Cabots set sail to explore an Atlantic route to Cathay and Tartary.

They were commissioned to sail with five ships under the royal flag, and to set up the king's banner as his officers. We may thus look upon this expedition of the Cabots as the first English attempt at discovery. It resulted in the discovery of Newfoundland on June 24th, 1497, and much information of the valuable fisheries was also gained. On his return John Cabot received the king's thanks and a donation of £10 from the privy purse.

In the following year John Cabot made a second voyage to the American coasts, going as far as $67\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ N. lat. and to the mouth of the Delaware in the south. We do not read much of these two voyages of the Cabots, but we do know that a century later the English claimed the American mainland by right of discovery. Neither do we know the fate of John Cabot, but after an interval of twenty years we find

that Sebastian had entered the service of Venice, perhaps because it was more profitable.

Henry VIII. continued to support the spirit of enterprise, and he is generally regarded as the creator



"HARRY GRACE-A-DIEU," BUILT FOR HENRY VIII. 1512.
Anthony's "Declaration of the Royal Navy, 1546."

of the navy of those days. He encouraged ship-building and ship-owning; and he was much interested in fisheries both in English and in distant waters. From Southampton to Bristol, ships built and owned by English merchants began to find their way to the Baltic and the Mediterranean; and from the west of

England numbers of fishermen went yearly to the fishing-banks of Newfoundland.

The new spirit of enterprise had gained such a hold on the English people, that, by the end of the reign of Henry VIII., the English navy was said to be the strongest afloat; and our mercantile marine was rapidly increasing. The traders of London and Bristol were in no way behind the Flemings and the Italians, and they were always ready to engage in enterprises, which promised both profit and adventure. Thus about 1550 England was busy preparing for its future task of leading the nations of the world.

CHAPTER XXV.

WILLIAM TYNDALE, OR THE TRANSLATION OF THE BIBLE.

THE reign of Henry VIII. will always be associated with the stirrings of the great religious movement called the Reformation. This began with Luther, a man of much power and religious feeling, who won a part of Germany from its allegiance to the Pope. The movement spread to other countries, and had for its agents such men as John Huss and Melancthon. In time it passed over to England, where it worked an even greater change than on the Continent.

The ground for the English Reformation had been prepared by the previous efforts of John Wyclif and the Lollards; indeed John Wyclif is often called the

“Morning Star” of the Reformation. Owing to the



LUTHER PREACHING.

Contemporary German MS. of his Prayers.

Wars of the Roses, his work had not made much progress, but immediately the Tudors began to reign, and

printing was introduced, men's minds once more desired to find a purer form of worship,

A great writer has said that the smouldering embers of Wyclif's movement needed but a breath to fan them into flame, and the breath came from William Tyndale. Let us, therefore, consider the life of this Reformer, and something of his work in translating the Bible into the common tongue, for there is no doubt that, by giving this book to the people, a new spirit of thought and inquiry was substituted for the old spirit of authority and unquestioning obedience.

William Tyndale, who has been called "the faithful minister and constant martyr of Christ," was born among the Cotswolds, in the year before the battle of Bosworth Field. At an early age he was sent to Oxford and thence passed to Cambridge, where he made the best use of his time as a student, and "increased in the knowledge of tongues and of the Scriptures."

While at the University, he came under the influence of the teachers of the New Learning, and from that time one thought was at his heart, for he clearly perceived that it was impossible to teach religious truths to the laity, unless they had the Bible in their mother tongue. Although Wyclif and others had done much to bring home the truths of Scripture to the peasants, the Bible was really a sealed book to all but the learned.

Tyndale's resolve was none other than the translation of the Bible into English, and he said to a learned friend, "If God spare my life, ere many years I will cause a boy that driveth a plough shall know more of the Scripture than thou dost." It was the

noble resolve of an enthusiastic youth, but Tyndale was more than forty before his desire became a reality.



WILLIAM TYNDALE. Holland's "Heroologia."

Leaving the University, Tyndale became tutor to the children of a Gloucestershire knight, and while living in this retirement he heard of the great work of Luther in Germany. In a short time Tyndale left Gloucestershire, and found shelter for one year with a citizen of London. There he studied but one book—

the Bible—and so great a hold did the work take of him, that “the most part of the day” was spent in this study. But he soon discovered that there was no room for him to translate the Bible in England, and that he must find refuge on the Continent.

Accordingly, Tyndale went to Hamburg in 1524, and from thence he soon found his way to Wittenberg, the little town where Luther taught. Students from all nations went flocking to Wittenberg with an enthusiasm equal to that of the Crusaders, who went to Jerusalem. This visit at once determined the future of Tyndale’s life. He resolved to face the “poverty, exile, bitter absence from friends, hunger and thirst and cold, and great danger,” which the work he had set himself was to bring with it.

It was in 1525 that Tyndale finished the translation of the New Testament, and by the help of some English merchants he found means to print it at Cologne. But Tyndale had to fly to Worms, and it was from Worms that six thousand copies of the New Testament were sent in 1526 to English shores.

The English king and the bishops at once took steps to prevent the circulation of Tyndale’s New Testament, and to destroy all the copies they could lay hands on. In London great baskets full of books were burned, and large sums of money were spent in buying up all the copies that could be found. But so eager were Englishmen for the Gospel that they were ready to offer much money to secure a New Testament. So that instead of hindering Tyndale’s work, it was really furthered, as he was enabled to send over other editions.

Bibles and pamphlets were smuggled over to England and circulated among the poorer classes, chiefly by the aid of London tradesmen and citizens; and, in many parts of England, groups of people met together to read and discuss the Bible. The greater the opposition to Tyndale's work, the more it spread: and, although he lived in the midst of turmoil, he was able to pursue his labours.

The end of Tyndale was a sad one, for while residing in the house of his warm friend, Thomas Poyntz, of Antwerp, he was treacherously betrayed and flung into prison. Notwithstanding all the efforts of his friends in England and the Low Countries to save him, he was condemned to death. On Friday, October 6, 1536, Tyndale was strangled at the stake, and his body burnt to ashes. His last words were, "Lord, open the King of England's eyes!"

The reformer was dead, but the work went on, and before many years had passed the Bible was translated in England, and appointed to be read in churches by royal command. Again and again was the Bible translated, until at last, in the reign of James I., a new translation was ordered by the king. For this task forty-seven of the most learned men in the kingdom were selected, and after three years' labour the Authorised Version was produced. So well was the work of translation done that, for nearly three centuries, this Authorised Version has found favour in the eyes of Englishmen.

When we think of the Reformation let us always remember the work of William Tyndale, for both his life and labours are worthy of our regard. Not only

was he a martyr for the sake of truth, but he may be called an Apostle of England in spreading abroad among the poor a better knowledge of religion.

CHAPTER XXVI.

IN THE DAYS OF DRAKE, OR HOW ENGLAND BECAME MISTRESS OF THE SEAS.

HENRY VIII. had no love for the new opinions of the Reformers, but he was drawn into a quarrel with the Pope of Rome, who refused to divorce him from his queen, Catherine of Aragon. The quarrel ended in a breach between Rome and England, and Henry threw off all connection with the Papacy. But though he parted from the Pope, he strove to avoid any change in religious belief, for he hated Protestantism as much as he hated Rome.

When Henry died, however, the Protestants became rulers of England. The young king, Edward VI., allowed the nobles, who ruled in his name, to force their belief on the people. There was some revolt and much discontent, but the bulk of Englishmen wished to be free from Rome. Thus matters continued till the death of Edward. Then his sister Mary came to the throne. She was a bigoted Catholic, and not only did she do away with Protestantism, but she brought England once again under the Pope of Rome.

Mary looked on all Protestants as heretics and traitors, and her reign will ever be remembered for



HENRY VIII.

From the Picture by Holbein at Berkeley Castle.

the persecution of hundreds of men and women who died for the sake of their religion. The persecution ended with Mary's death; and her sister Elizabeth, who succeeded her, once again restored Protestantism to its old supremacy. The reign of Elizabeth was the greatest in our history; and, under her, England rose to a power and grandeur it had never known before.

It was in the reign of Elizabeth that the foundation of our empire was laid, and one of the most notable of the many great Englishmen who helped in this work was Francis Drake.

Drake was born near Tavistock, in Devonshire, about 1540. His parents were poor, and, while Drake was still a child, his father removed to Kent, taking up his abode in the hull of an old ship lying in the Medway. It is said he was forced to do this as he had so many children, among whom were twelve sons, and he could not find room for them in any other way. At an early age, young Francis was apprenticed to the master of a small vessel. So pleased was the mariner with the lad's diligence and honesty, that the ship was bequeathed to Drake on the death of its owner.

For some years Francis Drake followed the coasting trade, but the narrow seas of his own lands were a prison for so large a spirit. Accordingly, in 1565, he sold his little vessel, and sailed, under the command of Captain Lovell, to Guinea and the Spanish Main. In those days nearly the whole of America belonged to Spain, and Spaniards were acquiring vast wealth from the mines of Mexico and Peru. Englishmen heard of the countless treasures of America, and they

longed to share in the wealth of the Western Continent. But the Spaniards claimed the sole right of trading with the whole of America, except Brazil, which belonged to Portugal; and any Englishman who dared to sail to the West Indies would do so at the peril of his life.

In 1567 Drake sailed under Hawkins, who drove a prosperous trade in buying slaves in Africa and selling them to the Spaniards in the West Indies. It is said that Hawkins gained about £1,800,000 in this dishonourable traffic. But at last Hawkins was attacked by the Spanish fleet, which captured his largest ship containing his treasure. Two of his smaller vessels escaped to England in a miserable condition, and one of them, the "Judith," was commanded by Drake.

This failure did not dismay Drake; perhaps it only made him more anxious to win treasure from Spain at the hazard of his own life. We must remember that, while England had no regular army and only a small navy, the army and navy of Spain were the best in the world. But Englishmen hated Spain, because King Philip persecuted Protestants, and often handed over captured English sailors to the tortures of the Inquisition. Thus men like Drake, while acting as pirates, believed themselves to be the champions of the oppressed Protestants.

Drake, however, determined to have nothing more to do with the slave trade, and in 1572 he sailed with two small vessels to Nombre de Dios. Here he encountered the Spaniards; and, after a short struggle, he was wounded. His men carried him to the boats, and thus the "Treasure of the World" was not

plundered. In this audacious enterprise Drake, however, burned Portobello, and captured and destroyed many Spanish ships.



CLASP-KNIFE OF SIR FRANCIS DRAKE. Journal of Archaeological Association.

Before Drake left the Isthmus of Panama he was invited to climb a lofty tree, from which he saw the bright waves of the Pacific. As he gazed upon the fair scene, he prayed that he might sail an English ship on its waters. Before his wish could be gratified

he returned home, arriving at Plymouth one Sunday morning. The people were in church; but, when the news of his arrival reached them, they all ran out of church to welcome Drake, leaving the clergyman alone in his pulpit!

After a sojourn in England of five years Drake started in 1577 on another voyage, taking with him five small but well-built vessels, of which the "Pelican" was the largest. Drake sailed through the Straits of Magellan, but, as he entered the Pacific, a terrible gale arose. When the storm abated, he found that four of his five vessels had either returned home or had been lost. Drake changed his ship's name to the "Golden Hind," and sailed along the western coast of America, plundering as he went, and carrying off untold riches.

Leaving Cape Francisco he sailed homewards across the Pacific, and, after a long and adventurous voyage, he arrived in England with vast quantities of gold, silver, and precious stones. Elizabeth did her great sailor much honour, for she visited him on board his ship and knighted him. After other adventures, Drake was sent to Spain to stop the preparations which Spain was making to invade England. He sailed into Cadiz harbour, and before night he had burned, captured, or sunk one hundred of the Spanish vessels. This sport he called "singeing the King of Spain's beard."

The result of this daring act by Drake was to prevent the Spanish fleet from sailing that year. In 1588, however, the Armada set sail and was reported to be off the Lizard, while Drake and some admirals

were playing bowls on Plymouth Hoe. Howard was anxious to put to sea at once. Not so Drake, who, in an off-hand manner, declared "there's plenty of time to win the game and beat the Spaniards too."

Early next morning the battle began, and raged along the Channel throughout the last week of July. Drake showed fine seamanship and his usual daring, and covered himself with fresh glory. When the Armada, to avoid destruction, endeavoured to flee to the north, Drake and Howard went in pursuit; and it was only the want of food and ammunition that compelled them to abandon the chase. The storms of the northern seas took up the work of destruction, and, of the whole Armada, only a few shattered hulks returned to Spain to tell of the loss of many fine ships and thousands of brave men.

We have not space to tell of the other deeds of daring wrought by Drake, and so must pass to his last expedition that left Plymouth in 1595. Nothing but ill-fortune attended him, and when he landed on the Isthmus of Panama the Spaniards attacked him, killing so many of his men that Drake thought it advisable to retreat. He reached his ship, but was stricken down with dysentery, and then he knew that his end was near. The sickness rapidly grew worse, and on January 28, 1596, he died on board his ship, off Portobello. His body was placed in a leaden coffin, and the next day it was reverently committed to the deep. In the words of the poet:

"The waves became his winding sheet; the waters were his tomb;

But for his fame, the ocean sea was not sufficient room."

Thus passed away at the age of fifty-five the



QUEEN ELIZABETH.

From the original Portrait at Penshurst.

greatest of the Elizabethan sailors. By his skill and
bravery he saved England from the Spanish yoke, and

he gave to his own country the command of the sea, which has never since been lost.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE FIRST ENGLISH COLONIES, OR THE WORK OF RALEIGH AND HIS FRIENDS.

WHILE men like Drake were plundering the Spaniards upon the seas, there were other Englishmen, equally brave and daring, who were striving to plant colonies, which should make the New World English instead of Spanish territory. Of these founders of colonies in the reign of Elizabeth, the chief were Sir Walter Raleigh and Sir Humphrey Gilbert. Although they did not altogether succeed, yet it was through their efforts that the first settlements were founded, which have since grown into the United States of America. So if we regard Drake as the forerunner of England's naval greatness, we must also consider Raleigh as the pioneer of her colonial empire. /

Like Drake and many other Elizabethan sailors, Raleigh was born in Devonshire, probably in 1552. The house in which he was born was in sight of the sea, and this may have influenced him in loving sea-faring pursuits. We do not know much of his early years, but at the age of seventeen he went over to France to fight for the Protestants, who were being oppressed by the Catholics. There he stayed for six years, and on his return he made his appearance at

Elizabeth's Court, where he soon gained the queen's



SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT.

Engraving by C. Van de Pas, in Holland's "Heroologia."

favour owing to his good looks, his energy, and fine abilities.

Raleigh, however, longed for something better than the life of a courtier, and in 1578 he set sail with his kinsman, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, on an expedition to attack the Spaniards and to discover the North-West Passage. This enterprise proved unsuccessful, and in 1580 Raleigh accepted a command in Ireland. There was then a rebellion in that country, and Raleigh had to take his share in suppressing the revolt. This he did with some severity, and was rewarded for his efforts by a grant of 18,000 acres of land in Munster, which he colonised by introducing Englishmen to populate the estates.

When Raleigh returned to England, he was again admitted to the royal favour of his mistress, who admired his ready speech and charming manners. By Elizabeth he was promoted to high offices ; and, when he became Captain of the Queen's Guard, he was brought into constant communication with his royal mistress.

In the meantime, Sir Humphrey Gilbert had procured a commission which gave him liberty to go in search of heathen lands and to take them in the name of the queen. As a first step towards this project, Gilbert formed a company, and received much assistance. On August 5th, 1583, three ships with some intending colonists landed in the harbour of St. John's, Newfoundland. Gilbert summoned all the inhabitants and traders of that port, read the queen's commission, and in her name took possession of the town and district within a radius of 200 leagues.

Thus the first English colony was proclaimed, and England took the first step towards founding her great empire. The experiment of colonising Newfoundland

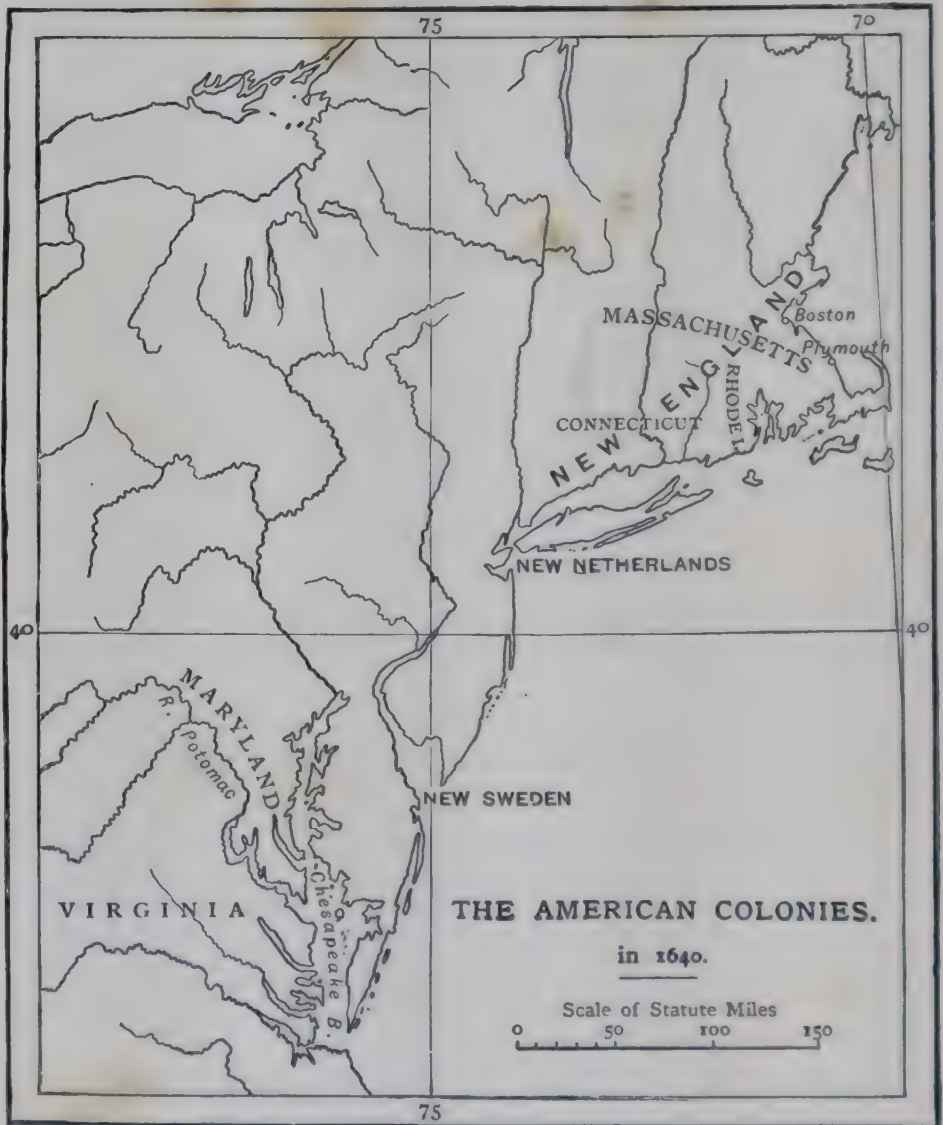
failed, for discontent and sickness compelled Gilbert to return. Gilbert reluctantly took to his little ship, having with him his friends with whom he had encountered so many storms and perils. The weather was very rough, so rough that the oldest mariner aboard had never seen more outrageous seas. The little frigate was wrecked in the night, and neither the vessel nor any of its crew was ever seen again.

Gilbert's work, however, was not allowed to lapse. For many years Raleigh had been pondering over the best way to colonise countries on the other side of the Atlantic. The King of Spain claimed nearly the whole of America as his own, but the Spaniards had not settled in any of the districts on the Atlantic coast of what we now call the United States. Raleigh received a patent allowing him to acquire any heathen lands which he might discover, and so he determined to try his fortune in that district of North America.

Raleigh accordingly fitted out an expedition, and his ships touched the American coast off the shore of the present State of North Carolina. They returned to England with a glowing account of the fertility of the soil, the charm of the climate, and with rumours of the abundance of gold and pearls. So pleased was the queen, that she suggested the name Virginia for the new colony.

In 1585 an expedition of 108 settlers sailed for Virginia under the command of Sir Richard Grenville, a cousin of Raleigh, and a fighting sea-captain like Drake. Owing to various causes, however, the colony did not prosper, and the colonists were glad to be brought home by Drake in 1586.

For a time, then, the founding of colonies did not seem a success. But still a beginning had been made,



and we shall find that after a while Englishmen profited by these early efforts of the Elizabethan navigators and adventurers. The year 1588 brought Raleigh more

exacting work, for when the Armada sailed up the Channel in the month of July, he was in his proper place on board the fleet, which was chasing the Spanish ships up the Channel and through the North Sea to their destruction.

The next year we find Raleigh joining an expedition under Drake to take vengeance on the Spaniards. This, however, accomplished little, and then Raleigh betook himself to his Irish estates, living pleasantly at his house at Youghal. It is during this sojourn in Ireland that he tried the experiments of planting tobacco and potatoes, both of which had been brought over from America.

In 1591 he was back in England, urging the queen to take part in an expedition against Spain. It was in that year that his cousin, Sir Richard Grenville, sailed with Lord Thomas Howard to take the Spanish fleet of treasure ships on their return from South America. But the Spaniards heard of this design, and sent fifty-three ships of war to act as a convoy. The story of Sir Richard Grenville and his little ship, the "Revenge," has been told in a noble ballad by Tennyson. Suffice it to say that this grand hero fought to the last with one ship against fifty-three; and, when he was carried dying to the stately Spanish flag-ship, he rose upon their decks, and he cried:

"I have fought for Queen and Faith like a valiant man and true;

I have only done my duty, as a man is bound to do:

With a joyful spirit I, Sir Richard Grenville, die!

And he fell upon their decks and he died."

Returning to Raleigh, we find he offended Elizabeth in 1592, and by her he was thrown into the Tower.

He soon regained his liberty, and again determined to seek new lands beyond the seas. This time he made for Guiana, a region between the Amazon and the Orinoco. He received much encouragement, and took command of the expedition in person. The Orinoco was explored for several hundred miles, and Raleigh brought home glowing reports of the fertility of the soil and of a region of untold wealth, which was called El Dorado, or the Golden Land.

Raleigh intended to return to Guiana the next year, but in 1596 Elizabeth needed him to accompany an expedition she was sending against the shores of Spain. It sailed under the command of the Earl of Essex and Lord Howard, and not only destroyed Cadiz, but worked immense harm to Spain. It is pleasing to note that Raleigh was so successful in his share of the work that, on his return, Elizabeth again received him into her favour.

The long and glorious reign of Elizabeth was drawing to a close, and when she died in 1603 Raleigh had to deal with James I., who deprived the brilliant courtier of most of his offices. Raleigh, too, was charged with being concerned in a plot to deprive James of the throne; and although there was no truth in the charges brought against him, he was found guilty of treason, and imprisoned in the Tower for twelve years. While there Raleigh could not be idle. He was still haunted with dreams of the finding of rich lands, and he contrived to write the *History of the World*.

At length, in 1607, after his liberation, Raleigh conducted his last expedition to Guiana in search of gold.

On his arrival in South America he was attacked by the Spaniards, whom he defeated; but the gold mine of which he dreamt was not discovered, and he returned to England a disappointed man.

He was received with marked displeasure on his return by James I., who declared his intention of punishing all those who had committed acts of violence against the Spaniards. Raleigh was finally condemned to death on a false charge of treason. It was October 29th, 1618, that Raleigh mounted the scaffold and addressed the people in a touching speech, which he thus concluded: "So I take leave of you all, making my peace with God."

As soon as everything was ready, Raleigh turned to the executioner and asked to see the axe. He ran his finger down the edge, saying to himself, "This is a sharp medicine, but it is a sound cure for all diseases." He then knelt down and placed his head upon the block. Some one suggested that he should lay his face towards the east. "What matter," said he, "how the head lie, so the heart be right?" After he had prayed awhile, the headsman gave two blows, and the head was severed from the body. So died this brave and gallant Englishman, whose remains were buried by his faithful wife in St. Margaret's, Westminster.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE PILGRIM FATHERS, OR THE FOUNDING OF
NEW ENGLAND.

THE reign of James I. was very different from that of Elizabeth. It will be remembered as the time when the king quarrelled with the Parliament, and sowed the first seeds of the strife between the king and people which was to end in the Great Rebellion. James would not tolerate the religion of those who would not conform to the Church of England and its worship. This persecution of some of the Nonconformists drove a few of them to the New World, where they founded the colonies of New England. This departure of the Pilgrim Fathers from our shores is so important that we must consider it at some length.

At the beginning of the reign of James I. some poor people in the north of England, in towns and villages of Nottingham, Lincoln, and the borders of Yorkshire, used to meet at Elder Brewster's house at Scrooby for the study of the Bible. They chose for one of their ministers John Robinson, and for about a year they kept their meetings every Sabbath, worshipping God after their own fashion. They were, however, strictly watched night and day, and so persecuted by the agents of King James that, at last, these Puritans, despairing of rest in England, resolved to go into exile.

After suffering great hardships and cruel treatment,

they made their escape to Holland. Their arrival in Amsterdam in 1608 was but the beginning of their wanderings. "They knew they were *Pilgrims*, and looked not much on those things, but lifted up their eyes to heaven, their dearest country, and quieted their spirits." But they found it very difficult to make a living in Holland, and so terrible were their sufferings



BREWSTER'S HOUSE AT SCROOBY.

(The Pilgrims held their services in the building on the left.)

that many of their English friends preferred the prisons of England to the hard life of Holland. So the Pilgrims determined to found a colony in America.

They thought that they could not be worse off in America, and in that new land their children would not grow up as Dutch, but would still be English. It is true they had religious freedom in Holland, but they would have the same in America. After some years, trusting in God and themselves, they made ready for their departure. Two ships, the *Mayflower* and the *Speedwell*, conveyed some of the exiles on their journey

from Delft, and aided by a prosperous wind the vessels soon reached Southampton.

After a sojourn of a fortnight at that port, the vessels set sail for America. They had not gone far upon their voyage when the *Speedwell* was found to need repairs, and they were thus forced to put into the port of Dartmouth. After the loss of eight days they again weighed anchor, and were barely out of sight of land, when the captain of the *Speedwell* thought that his ship was too weak for the ocean voyage.

They put back to Plymouth, and agreed that the *Mayflower* should sail alone. Accordingly, on this little ship of only 180 tons, a company of 102 souls determined to face the perils of the Atlantic. It was on the 6th of September, 1620, that the passengers in the *Mayflower* set sail for a new world. They had a dreadful voyage across the Atlantic, and at one time it seemed as if the ship would surely go down.

The Pilgrims, however, assisted the sailors to place a heavy piece of wood under one of the deck beams and so saved the vessel from going to pieces. After much tribulation they sighted land off the coast of Cape Cod, on November 19th, 1620. They tried to sail around the cape to the southward, but storms drove them back, and they anchored in Princetown Harbour. For nearly a month the Pilgrims explored the shores of Cape Cod Bay, but on December 21st, 1620, a boat-party landed on the mainland, inside of Plymouth Harbour.

The Pilgrims decided to found their colony on the shore at that place, and about a week later the *Mayflower* anchored in Plymouth Harbour. For months

they had to live on the ship, while working parties built huts on shore. The work was hard; food and clothing could not be easily obtained; and, worst of all, it was in the midst of a cold New England winter.



A PURITAN FAMILY.

"The whole Psalms in four Parts," 1563.

Before the *Mayflower* sailed away in the spring one half of that devoted band was dead.

Before long, however, the Pilgrims' life became easier. They made a treaty with the Indians, and from them they learnt how to grow corn and to dig clams. The Pilgrims worked hard to raise food for themselves, they fished off the coast, and they bought

furs from the Indians. In course of time many of their friends joined them, other towns were settled, and Plymouth became the capital of the colony of New Plymouth. The colony, however, was never very prosperous, and in the end was added to Massachusetts.

As years went on other colonies were founded, until in 1643 the whole of them were joined together as the New England States. The New Englanders were small farmers, mechanics, ship-builders, and fishermen. They had few servants and very few slaves. Indeed, most of the labourers were free men and worked for wages. The New Englanders were very zealous in the matter of education, and a law was passed compelling every town to provide schools for all its children.

During all this time the New England States were English colonies, and looked to the mother country for assistance. The founding of the New England Colonies marks a new era in our history, and henceforth we shall find that the building of a Greater Britain beyond the seas makes rapid progress. These first colonists were driven from their fatherland not by the greed of gold nor by the love of adventure, but by the fear of God and the zeal for a godly worship. It was not without much grief that they tore themselves from their English homes, and many an emigrant as he left his native shore cried "Farewell, dear England."

Now there is a Greater Britain in both hemispheres, and no longer need an Englishman feel sad at leaving England, for English laws and the English language may be found wherever the English flag waves.

There he will find liberty, and there he will find freedom.

CHAPTER XXIX.

JOHN HAMPDEN, OR THE LIFE AND WORK OF A GREAT PATRIOT.

JAMES I. struggled fiercely against Puritanism and the love of freedom it aroused. This struggle went on under his son, Charles I., who endeavoured to govern by his own will. Parliament after Parliament was summoned, only to be dissolved because it would not obey the king's wishes. This unwise conduct of Charles caused great trouble in the kingdom, and gradually men took sides for or against the king. For the king there were such counsellors as the Earl of Strafford and Archbishop Laud, and for the authority of Parliament there were Eliot and Hampden, Pym and Cromwell. /

In order to understand how the quarrel arose between the King and the Parliament, let us consider the life and work of John Hampden, a patriot who laboured for liberty and freedom. John Hampden was the son of a country gentleman living in Buckinghamshire. His mother was the aunt of Oliver Cromwell, the Protector of England. Although the father of John Hampden died when his son was only three years old, the orphan received a good education, first at Thame Grammar School and afterwards at Magdalen College, Oxford.

For some time Hampden studied law, but in 1621



WILLIAM LAUD, ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.
Picture by Vandyck.

he entered Parliament, becoming a diligent and useful member of that assembly. Indeed, it was in that

House that Hampden achieved much fame as a leader, although he was never a great speaker. He kept in the background until after Charles I. had dissolved his second Parliament. The king then decided to levy a forced loan, and among those who refused to pay it were Eliot and Hampden. As a result Hampden was sent to prison, and was not liberated till 1628, when Charles was compelled to summon a new Parliament.

It was in this third Parliament that the Petition of Right was passed, much against the king's wish. Charles promised not to levy taxes without the consent of Parliament nor to imprison men without stating the cause of their imprisonment. Further, this Petition of Right enacted that soldiers were not to be billeted in private houses without permission, and that martial law was not to be exercised over soldiers or civilians. These were very important provisions, and the Petition of Right must rank with the Great Charter in safeguarding the freedom and liberty of Englishmen.

Charles dissolved this Parliament in 1629, and for many years to come the king chose to rule without any Parliament at all. It was about this time that Charles set his mind on raising a fleet to defend our coasts. This was very proper, but the mode in which Charles proposed to do it was not considered legal. The king asked each port-town to supply him with vessels, and, when he was informed that this could not be done, the king offered to lend ships if the port-towns would pay the cost of them. This they did, and so Charles got the money he required without asking Parliament to grant it.

This was in 1634, but in the following year Charles went a step further, for he issued a demand for ship-money not only from the coast towns, but also from the inland counties. Now, as Hampden lived in Buckinghamshire, he was called upon to pay ship-money to the extent of twenty shillings. He at once refused, as he argued that the king had no right to levy this tax without the consent of Parliament.

Charles went on exacting this tax, but in 1637 he ordered Hampden's case to be tried before a court of twelve judges, who were called upon to decide whether this ship-money was legal or not. As a result of the trial seven of the judges declared in favour of the king, who thus got the tax from Hampden, and probably fancied that he could go on in this illegal manner. Charles was, however, mistaken, for most people believed that Hampden was right in resisting the imposition of the tax.

For a time John Hampden retired into private life. But there came a time of sore trouble for the king. Charles wanted much more money, for he had waged an expensive war with the Scots, and, much as he disliked it, he was forced to summon a Parliament after ruling for eleven years without one. In this short Parliament Hampden again appeared, and it was decided not to assist the king unless he redressed grievances and made peace with the Scots. So displeased was Charles with these demands that he dissolved Parliament, but in 1640 he was forced to call a new Parliament, which is known as the famous Long Parliament.

Among the first acts of the Long Parliament were

the imprisonment of Laud and the execution of Strafford, both of whom were the trusted ministers of



JOHN HAMPDEN. Picture by Van Dyck.

the king. Then the Long Parliament, led by Hampden and Pym, determined to make Parliament the master of England, and forced the king to give his

assent to a Bill, which provided that Parliament should not be dissolved without its own assent.

Events now moved fast, and although for a time the king seemed to consent to the many reforms of the Long Parliament, he at length made up his mind to bring to trial his chief opponents in Parliament. Accordingly, in 1642 the king ordered the arrest of one member of the House of Lords, Lord Mandeville, and five members of the House of Commons—Hampden, Pym, Holles, Hazlerigg, and Strode. Charles himself went down to the House of Commons to make the arrest in person, but the news of his intention spread, and before his arrival the five members had escaped to the City.

Finding he was baffled, Charles insisted that the House should send them to him when they returned. His demand was rejected, and the City took up arms in their defence. The five members were now popular heroes, and were conducted back to Westminster in triumph, while Charles thought it prudent to withdraw to the country.

This event was really the beginning of the Civil War, and on its outbreak in August, 1642, John Hampden determined to take arms against the king. He was placed in command of a regiment, and although not a brilliant soldier, he showed much activity in the field. Hampden was not in the first fight at Edgehill, but in June, 1643, he was endeavouring to harass the movements of Prince Rupert, the dashing cavalry leader on the king's side.

A skirmish followed at Chalgrove Field, and Hampden was mortally wounded in the shoulder.

With his head drooping and his hands leaning on his horse's neck, Hampden moved feebly out of the battle. He turned his horse towards Thame, where he arrived almost fainting with agony. The surgeon dressed his



JOHN PYM.

Miniature by Samuel Cooper.

wounds; but there was no hope, and after lingering six days he passed away, murmuring with his last breath, "O Lord, save my country."

John Hampden was a true patriot in every sense of the word. He did his duty in every circumstance of

life, and proved himself wise and temperate in all things. His death was the greatest loss English freedom ever sustained; but he has left us the memory of a great name, and one which should be cherished by all Englishmen.

CHAPTER XXX.

FROM KING TO PROTECTOR, OR THE GREAT REBELLION.

THE death of John Hampden was a great loss to the army of the Parliament, and for a time the Royalists gained some successes over their opponents. There were signs that the king was gaining ground, when the Scots came to the aid of the Parliament, and sent an army under Lord Leven to assist a Yorkshire army under Fairfax, and one from the Eastern Counties under Lord Manchester and Oliver Cromwell. It is now that Cromwell first takes his place as a leader, and from this time forward all eyes rest upon this remarkable character.

The king's troops in the north were commanded by Lord Newcastle, and, when he found the strength of his opponents, he appealed for aid to Charles. Prince Rupert, a dashing but reckless cavalry leader, and a relative of the king, was sent to unite with Newcastle and to attempt the relief of York, which was besieged. The forces met on Marston Moor, an open ground only a few miles from York, and there, on July 2nd, 1644, a desperate battle was fought. The

Royalists fought well, but they were decisively beaten



SIR THOMAS FAIRFAX. Engraving by H. Hondius.

by the Parliamentarians, who gained the victory mainly owing to the skilful generalship of Cromwell.

He himself said, "We never charged but we routed the enemy. God made them as stubble to our swords."

From Marston Moor everything went against the king until the great Royalist defeat at Naseby on June 14th, 1645. Again Cromwell proved his superiority as a leader, and captured the whole of Charles's infantry. The king, gathering some of his friends around him, made his escape, but this battle really lost him his crown. After some wandering he reached Scotland and gave himself up to the Scots, who surrendered him to the Parliament.

In the meantime there was strife between the Parliament and its victorious army, and Charles used this opportunity to bring about a fresh and desperate rising. In this second Civil War the Royalists were assisted by an army from Scotland, but it ended in their defeat, the last town to surrender being Colchester, which had been besieged by Fairfax.

The army was now very angry and had lost all patience with Charles, so in December, 1648, it was demanded that the king should be brought to trial. But some of the members of the House of Commons wanted a reconciliation with the king. This would not suit the opponents of Charles, and on December 6th a body of soldiers, under the command of Colonel Pride, went down to the House of Commons and forcibly expelled all those members who took the side of the king.

On the first day of the next year, 1649, the purged House proposed to set up a High Court of Justice to try Charles, and, after some opposition, this Court was

constituted, having Bradshaw for its president. Charles was brought from Hurst Castle to Westminster on January 19th, but he refused to plead before the Court, as he said it could have no jurisdiction over a king.

The trial of the king, however, went on, and in the end the Court declared that Charles Stuart was "a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy," and that he should be put to death "by severing his head from his body." The unhappy king now asked permission to speak, but was refused, and was led away exclaiming, "I am not suffered to speak. Expect what justice other people will have!" Great efforts were made to save the king, but the Commons refused to spare his life.

It was January 30th, 1649, when King Charles took his journey to the scaffold in front of his own palace at Whitehall, and during the whole of the trying time he bore himself with dignity and fortitude. The scaffold was hung with black and carpeted with black, with the block and the axe in the middle. On the scaffold many people were standing, some of them wearing masks to conceal their faces. In the space around the scaffold were companies of foot and horse soldiers, and, as far as the eye could reach, was a dense crowd of spectators.

The king addressed the people, saying that he desired their "liberty and freedom as much as any one," and declaring that he would "die a Christian, according to the profession of the Church of England." He then took off his cloak and "George," and with the word "Remember" on his lips, he knelt down and put his head on the block. After a second or two he

stretched out his hands as a sign that he was ready. The axe descended, severing the head from the body at one blow. There was a vast shudder through the mob, and then a universal groan, when it was known that the king had paid the extreme penalty.



WHITEHALL. After W. Hollar.

The death of Charles was followed by the conquest of Ireland and Scotland. Both were undertaken by Oliver Cromwell, who was now Lord General of the Parliamentary Army. He subdued Ireland by measures of ruthless severity, putting men and women to death with the utmost cruelty. He then invaded Scotland, which had proclaimed Charles, the son of the dead king, as its sovereign. There Cromwell won the great victory of Dunbar, and forced the young "King of the Scots" to march into England. Cromwell

overtook him at Worcester and utterly defeated him, so that he was driven to flight from England to the Continent, which he reached after many narrow escapes.

Directly all these dangers were over the victors quarrelled among themselves. The Parliament wished to break up the army, and in return the army resolved to drive out the Parliament, if it did not consent to dissolve itself and so enable a fresh House of Commons to be chosen. In the end, Cromwell went down to the House and forcibly put an end to the famous Long Parliament. "Come, come!" he cried, "we have had enough of this. I will put an end to this. It is not fit you should sit here any longer." He called to his soldiers, who at once cleared the House, and so made way for a new Parliament.

Now that the Long Parliament had ceased to exist, England really lay in the power of the army, and its general, Oliver Cromwell, became ruler of the country with the title of Lord Protector in 1653. Cromwell was a man of great genius and one who loved order, but he failed to secure the co-operation of Englishmen. He had difficulties with his Parliament and troubles with his soldiers. At home there was failure, and he realised that he was attempting to do that which was impossible, for though he was feared he was not loved.

At length men grew tired of the strictness of the Puritans and the tyranny of the army. Cromwell, too, was growing weary of the hopeless struggle, and during the summer of 1658 his health began to fail. His heart also was much saddened by the death of his favourite daughter, and this helped to bring on a

serious illness. On September 3rd of that year the Protector died, passing away with the knowledge that he left no one to carry on his work.

CHAPTER XXXI.

CROMWELL AND THE EMPIRE.

ALTHOUGH it is true that Oliver Cromwell did not gain the love of the English, or Irish, or Scots, yet we shall do him a great injustice if we overlook the work of the Protector in making England one of the great powers of Europe. It is also owing to his policy that the British Empire was extended, and it has been said that he was perhaps the only Englishman, who has ever understood, in its full sense, the word Empire.

Cromwell it was who recognised the vast importance of having a properly constituted army to defend our shores and to safeguard our rights abroad. Here are his memorable words on this subject, spoken in 1658: "You have accounted yourselves happy," said Cromwell, "in being environed by a great ditch from all the world beside. Truly you will not be able to keep your ditch nor your shipping, unless you turn your ships and shipping into troops of horse and companies of foot, and fight to defend yourselves on *terra firma*."

Now when he made this speech his navy had done valiantly on the high seas, and the exploits of the

Elizabethan seamen had been worthily maintained ;



OLIVER CROMWELL. Contemporary Dutch Engraving.

but perhaps Cromwell saw that Englishmen would need a large army to resist the aggressions of Spain

and France. It is a strange thing that Cromwell at the outset of his policy desired peace, and yet his Protectorate was marked by fighting on land and sea. Now, why was this? Probably as time went on he found it necessary that energetic action should take the place of peace, in order that the maritime power of Holland and Spain should be crippled. "Peace," said Cromwell, "is desirable with all men, so far as it may be had with conscience and honour."

We shall not be far wrong if we say that the Protectorate of Cromwell was the time when Spain fell from its position as a world-power, and that this proud position was henceforth taken by the English. Under the first two Stuart kings some of our colonies were planted in the New World, but it does not seem that either James or Charles cared very much for these possessions. Under the Commonwealth, the policy of adding to the empire was carried out in a way that was at once able, resolute, and successful.

a. You have already heard of the Spanish monopoly of trade with the New World, and how the English seamen endeavoured to break it, and did much to damage it. James I. did not continue the policy of fighting Spain, for he was too timid to declare war, and his son Charles I. was too much in danger in his own country to think of attacking a foreign power. Cromwell, however, was made of sterner stuff, and when he declared war against England's greatest foe, he was supported by the Puritans and the merchants.

Cromwell demanded trade with the Spanish Colonies in America, as well as religious freedom for English settlers in those colonies. His demands were scornfully

refused, whereupon Cromwell sent a strong fleet under Penn and Venables to the West Indies. This expedition was not very successful, indeed it really failed in its



W. PENN.

Portrait in National Museum, Philadelphia.

object. But not liking to return in disgrace, these commanders acquired Jamaica, which had been discovered by Columbus in 1494, and had been held by Spain since 1509.

This capture of Jamaica gave the English a secure footing in the West Indies, and helped to increase our trade. Then Cromwell seized Dunkirk from France, the ally of Spain, so that he might secure a monopoly of the Channel, which was then largely in the hands of the Dutch. Dunkirk was, however, a useless possession, and it was eventually sold by Charles II. Not content with his victories over Spain, Cromwell declared war against the Dutch, who were our great commercial rivals.

The Dutch were defeated mainly by the victories of Blake, and then Cromwell proceeded to ruin their trade by the Navigation Acts. This duel with the Dutch is remarkable, because, hitherto, England and Holland had been good friends, owing to both nations holding the Protestant form of religion. Perhaps Cromwell argued after this fashion: "Holland is our great rival in trade, on the ocean, and in the New World. Let us destroy her, though she be a Protestant Power."

✓ The Navigation Acts ordered that no goods from Asia, Africa, or America were to be imported into England or her colonies, except in ships belonging to English subjects; and no goods of any European country were to be imported, except in English vessels or ships belonging to the country from which the goods came. Now, note the effect of these Acts. The Dutch were at that time the ocean carriers of the world, and these Acts resulted in collision with Dutch interests. For a time English ships were driven out of neutral ports, and we lost the Russian and Baltic trade. But after a while our shipping trade flourished, and our commercial supremacy soon followed. ✓

We may say that in all his foreign policy Cromwell was actuated with a union of religious zeal, imperial spirit, and mercantile aims. During his Protectorate a powerful fleet was kept ready for action in the Downs, guarding Dover and the Thames. Cruisers were watching the coasts of the kingdom, and, for the first time, English ships were stationed in the Mediterranean and in the West Indies to protect our trade.

The cost of the navy was extravagant for those days. The whole national revenue was only £2,600,000, and out of that sum £1,500,000 was devoted to the Admiralty. No longer were the naval officers chosen by favour. Now it was necessary for them to show merit before they received an appointment. The sailors were well treated and regularly paid. Ships were new and of good design, and there was a plentiful supply of stores, guns, and powder. After the Dutch war in 1654 the Government found themselves with 160 sail of "brave and well-appointed ships swimming at sea." Surely this all points to a policy at once energetic and resolute on the part of Cromwell.

A great writer has said that Cromwell's "greatness at home was but a shadow of the glory he had abroad." When the Commonwealth opened on the death of Charles I., England had sunk to a very low position; but at the death of Cromwell she was a European Power of the first rank, and was dominant by land and sea in all Continental affairs.

CHAPTER XXXII.

THE RESTORATION AND THE HABEAS
CORPUS ACT.

THE rule of Puritanism was brought to an end by the death of Cromwell. It is true that his son, Richard Cromwell, succeeded his father as Protector, and in 1659 summoned a Parliament. Richard Cromwell was, however, a weak man, and as a result the army turned out both him and his Parliament. For a time the officers tried to govern England without a Parliament, but as there were divisions in the army, men longed to set up again the old system of government.

A new Parliament was chosen in 1660, and that body resolved that the government of the kingdom should be by King, Lords, and Commons. It also invited Charles II. to return to England and accept the vacant throne. It was on May 25th, 1660, that Charles II. landed at Dover, and on May 29th he entered London amid the greatest enthusiasm. No political change was ever welcomed with so much joy as this restoration of the monarchy, for men hoped that the rule of the sword would now come to an end. Never was an event celebrated with more enthusiasm. It is said that as Charles II. travelled to London there was not one who was not weeping for joy. Bonfires blazed and the bells pealed. At night the streets were thronged by boon-companions, who forced all the passers-by to drink to the health of the king.

Men were, however, much deceived by the character

of Charles II. It is true that he had a good word for every one, but he was fond of pleasure of a very low



CHARLES II. EMBARKING FOR ENGLAND. "Koninklijke Beltenis," 1661.

kind. He surrounded himself with nobles and courtiers of bad character; and it was soon seen that piety and right conduct were trampled under foot. We must always remember that the Puritans had striven to make men better, and they had worked a

great change in the lives of Englishmen. The "Merry Monarch" and his dissolute friends undid all the good of the Puritans, and instead of religion being cherished, pious men were now scoffed at and insulted.

Charles had courage, and wit, and ability, but he hated business, and gave no sign of ambition. The one thing he really cared for was pleasure. Gambling and drinking filled up his spare time. He showed no gratitude for benefits he received, and it is said that he loved others as little as he thought they loved him.

Such was the man who was the ruler over our land from 1660 to 1685, and of whom it is recorded :

"He never said a foolish thing
Nor ever did a wise one."

One of the worst results of the Restoration was the loss of religious liberty. Laws were made which required all Englishmen to conform to the Church of England. Those who attended the worship of any other religious body were punished with imprisonment, and among the ministers so punished was John Bunyan, the writer of *The Pilgrim's Progress*.

The same thing happened also in Scotland, but the struggle for religious liberty there took a more violent form. The great mass of the Scotch people had put away bishops, and held that the Church should be governed by Presbyters. They drew up the National Covenant which stated their belief. Charles, however, insisted on putting their Church under bishops and on rejecting the Covenant. Many submitted, but among the more earnest and zealous there sprang up a stern

resistance. They refused to worship in the churches, and gathered in meetings in the fields. These men,



ENTRY OF CHARLES II. INTO LONDON. "Koninklijke Beltenis." 1661.

who were faithful to the Covenant, were called Covenanters, and were hunted down like wild beasts by the Government.

Many unwise laws were passed in the reign of Charles II., but most of these have since been repealed.

There is one famous statute, however, which was passed in 1679, and as it secured for us much of the freedom we now enjoy, we must consider some of its provisions.

The Great Charter had declared that every freeman had the right to demand a fair trial, and that to no one should justice be denied, sold, or delayed. This charter had, however, often been broken, and numbers of men and women had been taken to prison and kept there for months, and even for years, without being brought to trial. Much injustice and cruel wrong had been thus caused to innocent persons; and it was not till 1679 that an Act was passed which prevented unlawful imprisonment in future.

This statute was called the Habeas Corpus Act, because the first words of it mean in English, "You may have the body." This Act provides that an application may be made on behalf of any prisoner for a trial, and that the judge must grant it under pain of a heavy fine. It also ordered that the jailers must also deliver up the prisoner to be brought before the judge, and that the prisoner shall then be tried. There was a further provision that no Englishman should be transported beyond the seas before his trial, nor be imprisoned, after his trial, out of England.

The Great Charter, the Petition of Right, and the Habeas Corpus Act are three of the great charters of our liberties; and it is worth remembering that two of them were won when the Stuarts were reigning. Later on we shall read of a fourth, the Bill of Rights, and then we shall see how that supplements the provisions of the Habeas Corpus Act.

The reign of Charles II. brought no glory to England either at home or abroad, and towards the close of his reign it was found that he was at heart a Catholic, and that he looked forward to the ruin of Protestantism. The hand of death was upon him, and on February 2nd, 1685, he was struck down by a fit of apoplexy. It was soon known that he was dying, and with his last breath he desired that he might be reconciled to the Church of Rome. Bishops and courtiers left his room; a priest was sent for; and Charles, having received the sacrament of the Roman Church, died a member of that communion on Feb. 6th, 1685.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

THE TRIAL OF THE SEVEN BISHOPS, OR THE REVOLUTION.

WE have now to consider the brief and inglorious reign of James II., which lasted from 1685 to 1688. He had an unfortunate belief that whatever he wished to do must be right, and he made up his mind to rule as a despot. He might have succeeded in doing this if he had not offended the religious beliefs of his subjects. James was a bigoted Catholic, and made no attempt to hide his opinions. Indeed, it was soon manifest that he had resolved to make England a Catholic country.

In his endeavours to bring England once more under the yoke of the Papacy, he gained the ill-will

of the clergy of the Church of England as well as of the Nonconformist ministers; and he set against him all the people who had hitherto supported the throne. Matters reached a crisis in 1688, when he ordered the clergy to read in their churches a Declaration of Indulgence, which gave permission to Roman Catholics and Nonconformists to worship publicly.

Little time was given to the clergy to consider what they should do, but little time was needed. The clergy refused almost to a man to obey the king's commands, and, when the day came, the Declaration was read in only four of the London churches, and in these the congregation flocked out of church at the first words of it. Instead of reading it, some ministers preached against it, and Samuel Wesley, father of the great John Wesley, preached a sermon on the text, "Be it known unto thee, O king, that we will not serve thy gods, nor worship the golden image which thou hast set up."

Nearly all the country clergy also refused to obey the royal orders: and, a few days before the appointed Sunday, seven of the bishops appeared before the king and presented a protest. James was surprised when the petition was put into his hands, and said in anger, "This is a standard of rebellion. I will have my Declaration published." So angry was James that he dismissed the seven bishops, and then ordered that they should be tried, for he absurdly argued that the petition was a libel.

It was the 15th June when the seven bishops were brought before the Court of King's Bench. The Court was crowded with their supporters, and it was manifest

that the bishops were supported by the people. The bishops pleaded Not Guilty, and were allowed to be at liberty till the 29th June. As they left the Court they were surrounded by crowds, who begged their blessing. The utmost enthusiasm prevailed, and in



THE SEVEN BISHOPS GOING TO THE TOWER.

"Engelands Godsdienst en Vryheid hersteld door den Heere Prince van Oranjen," Amsterdam, 1689.

the evening bonfires were lighted, while shouts and huzzas were heard in the streets.

The trial took place in Westminster Hall on June 29th and lasted ten hours. At seven o'clock in the evening the jury retired to consider their verdict, whether or no the petition of the seven bishops was a libel. The friends of the bishops watched at the

door of the jury-room. Midnight came and the jury were still discussing their verdict. It was understood that nine were for the bishops and three for the king. Two of the latter gave way, but the other, Arnold, who was the king's brewer, held out.

It was six o'clock in the morning before Arnold decided to agree with his fellow-jurymen. The Chief Justice was at once informed that the jury were agreed in their verdict, and he ordered the Court to meet at nine o'clock. The benches of the historic hall were crowded with the nobility and gentry, and an immense concourse of people filled the body of the hall, and blocked up the adjoining streets.

The foreman of the jury being asked, according to established form, whether the seven bishops were guilty or not guilty, at once replied *Not Guilty*. No sooner were these words pronounced than loud cheers arose from the audience in the Court. The applause was taken up by the crowds outside, and in a few minutes all London was shouting with joy. For a time no man seemed to know where he was, and for hours no business was transacted. It was said that never in the memory of man had there been heard such cries of applause mingled with tears of joy.

"The cheers were a very rebellion in noise." In no long time they reached the camp at Hounslow, where King James was reviewing his troops. Then the soldiers shouted like the rest, whereupon James asked what all the noise meant. "Nothing," he was told: "the soldiers are glad that the Bishops are acquitted." "Do you call that nothing?" he replied. "So much the worse for them!"

Throughout the country the excitement was intense. Bonfires were lighted in the streets; the houses were illuminated; and the bells rang for joy. The bonfires were kept ablaze during the whole of Saturday, and



THE SEVEN BISHOPS RETURNING FROM THE TOWER.

"Engelands Godsdiensst hersteld," 1689.

the joy of the multitude did not cease till the dawn of Sunday reminded them of the duties of religion.

When James saw the behaviour of the people his anger knew no bounds, and he determined by force of arms to bring his subjects into submission. He therefore left Hounslow in haste, and to the disgust of his own supporters he sent to Ireland for Roman Catholic soldiers to support his cause. England was

at last driven to revolt by the tyranny of James, and some of the great nobles invited William, Prince of Orange, to put himself at the head of the revolution.

William, who had married Mary, the eldest daughter of King James, obeyed the national call. He gathered a fleet and an army in Holland, and in 1688 set sail for the English shores. His first attempt was futile, as, owing to storms and ill-winds, he was beaten back. His second attempt was successful, and on November 5th, 1688, William's fleet of 600 ships and 50 men-of-war anchored in Torbay.

With an army of 13,000 men he entered Exeter, amid the shouts of the people. He met with no opposition, and reached London on December 18th. Everywhere the people rose against James, even his own officers forsook him. When he heard that his daughter Anne had also left, his spirit was quite broken. "God help me," cried the wretched king. "for my own children have forsaken me!"

On the very day that William entered London, James quitted England. It was arranged to place the means of escape at his disposal, as his presence was not desired in England. Accordingly, James embarked for France on December 23rd, and received assistance from the French king. The English king had thus abdicated. A *Revolution* had taken place. What its results were must be told in the next chapter.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

THE SIEGE OF LONDONDERRY, OR THE WORK
OF WILLIAM III.

Soon after William entered London a Parliament met, and declared that James II. had ceased to be king. The crown thus forfeited was offered to William and Mary, though William himself was to exercise sole authority as long as he lived. Directly the new reign had commenced, a document was drawn up and afterwards passed to secure that in future no king should break the law as James had broken it.

This famous document is known as the Bill of Rights, and as it sets out clearly the rights and liberties of the nation, it is well to know some of its provisions. Indeed, it is so important that we may place it with such charters as the Great Charter, the Petition of Right, and the Habeas Corpus Act.

The Bill of Rights made the Church of England free once more, and it said that there must be no interference with people who wanted to petition the king. This, of course, referred to the unjust trial of the seven bishops. The bill also ordered that a standing army must not be raised without the consent of Parliament, and it added to this that no king must levy taxes without permission of Parliament. Another part of the bill said that no Roman Catholic could sit upon the throne, and thus it decided what the religion of the sovereign should be.

There is also much that relates to free speech, the election of Members of Parliament, and the work of jurymen: but it is enough to remember that the Bill of Rights was accepted by William and Mary, who thus promised to obey the Parliament. Further, it is worth noting that the Bill has been binding on all English sovereigns since that time, and that it is binding still, for it has never been repealed.

The reign of William III. began on February 13th, 1689, but he soon found that, although he was accepted in England as sovereign, there would be much opposition in Scotland and Ireland. You have read in another book of the battle of Killiecrankie and the massacre of Glencoe, so in this chapter we will consider the siege of Londonderry in Ireland.

In the time of William III. there was a Parliament in Ireland as well as one in England. The Irish were generally in favour of James, who was a Catholic like themselves. There were, however, some Protestants in the north of Ireland, and they acknowledged William as their lawful king. The Lord Deputy of Ireland was a Catholic, and he had determined to do his utmost to keep Ireland for James. Accordingly, he began to disarm the Protestants, and raised an army of 50,000 Irish Catholics.

James had got assistance from the King of France, and he landed in Ireland in 1689. The Irish Protestants now crowded into the towns of Londonderry and Enniskillen for mutual support. James advanced against Londonderry, expecting it to surrender at his command; but instead he was met with a cannon ball and the cry of "No surrender." The citizens



WILLIAM III. OR OF ORANGE, KING & ARCHB.

Painted by Cornelius Jansen van Veen, the Younger, in the National Portrait Gallery.

manned the walls, and James and his escort fled for their lives. He therefore returned to Dublin, and left the siege to be conducted by one of his French generals.

The besieged now began the defence of Londonderry, but finding that their governor was not trustworthy, they deposed him and elected in his stead Major Henry Baker and a Protestant clergyman named George Walker. The city was badly provisioned, but the inhabitants were united against the common foe. On the 19th April all terms of surrender were rejected, and on April 20th there began the most memorable siege in British history, one which was destined to last for 105 days.

In order to prevent any help reaching the town a boom made of fir trees, firmly lashed together, had been stretched across the mouth of the river Foyle, while the banks were lined with Irish soldiers and cannon. The country for miles around Londonderry had been laid waste, and thus all chance of succour reaching the besieged seemed hopeless.

William had sent help from England, and thirty ships laden with provisions were lying in Lough Foyle. These were under the command of Colonel Kirk, but, probably owing to cowardice, he made no attempt to force the boom. Meanwhile the town was in a state of famine, and it seemed that its surrender was only a question of a few days.

A very small quantity of grain remained, and this was doled out by mouthfuls. The garrison appeased the pangs of hunger by gnawing salted hides. Dogs were luxuries which few could purchase, and the starv-

ing people were forced to eat rats. People died so fast that it was impossible to bury them reverently. Notwithstanding all their terrible sufferings and privations, the heroic defenders still held out. The cry was



THE WALLS OF LONDONDERRY. BUILT 1609.

After W. H. Bartlett.

“No surrender!” and on all hands it was manifest that a spirit of defiance and stubborn resolution upheld the people in their extremity.

At last Colonel Kirk received orders from William that he must force the boom and relieve the city. The attempt was to be made on the 28th July. The sun had set, and the congregation was leaving the cathedral, when three ships were seen coming up the Foyle. It

was then known that the forcing of the boom was about to begin. One of the ships, the *Mountjoy*, dashed against the obstacle, but failing to break through, stuck in the mud.

The hearts of the besiegers now sank within them, and men began to think that the attempt must fail. Just then the *Phoenix* dashed at the breach which the *Mountjoy* had made, and in a moment was within the fence. As the tide was now rising fast, the *Mountjoy* began to move, and was soon safe through the broken stakes and floating spars.

When the barricade was passed by the little squadron, the whole population was on the quays to welcome them. Barrels of meal, great cheeses, casks of beef, kegs of butter, biscuits, and other provisions were landed and quickly distributed among the famished people. Plenty now took the place of famine, and one can imagine with what tears grace was said over that evening meal.

There was little sleep that memorable night. Bonfires shone along the whole circuit of the ramparts; and all night long the bells of the relieved city rang out peals of joyous defiance to the baffled besiegers. The Irish army soon withdrew, and a long line of smoking ruins marked the place of their tents.

It was indeed a memorable siege, and Londonderry has worthily commemorated its brave defender—George Walker. In front of the Foyle rises a lofty pillar, and on its summit is the statue of Walker. In one hand he grasps a Bible, while the other, pointing down the river, seems to direct the eye to the English ships of relief in the distant bay.

After this siege William himself landed in Ireland in 1690, and defeated James at the battle of the Boyne. Although James fled to France, it was not till 1691 that Ireland was really subdued. The rest of the reign of William was occupied with wars on the Continent, in which William showed courage, perseverance, and energy. Englishmen, however, did not like William, as they thought he was reserved in his disposition and haughty in his bearing towards them.

They provided him, however, with money and soldiers for his wars to humble the French. As a result of William's efforts, England was freed from fear of invasion, peace was restored to Europe, and the commerce of England was increased. When William died, men acknowledged that he always ruled according to law, and that he left England stronger and richer than it was at the beginning of his reign.

CHAPTER XXXV.

SCOTLAND AND THE COLONIES, OR UNION AND EXPANSION.

QUEEN ANNE, who succeeded William III., was very popular with her subjects, for she was English by birth, and understood the virtues and prejudices of her people. Her reign lasted from 1702 to 1714, and is chiefly famous for the Union with Scotland and a great war on the Continent, which was terminated by the Peace of Utrecht.

The Union of the Parliaments of England and Scotland was one of the most important events of this reign. Although the two countries had been ruled by the same sovereign since 1603, each country had kept its own Parliament. This arrangement had not worked well, and it had been the wish of statesmen of both countries to have one common Parliament. William III. was of this opinion, and directly Queen Anne came to the throne some commissioners were appointed by the English and Scots to consider how the two Parliaments could be united.

The Scots, however, made impossible demands, and although all were agreed that it would be well to have one sovereign and one Parliament, the negotiations came to an end for a time. The commissioners returned to their Parliaments, and measures were on the point of being passed that seemed likely to lead to war. The Scotch Parliament, for instance, declared that they would elect a Protestant member of the Stuart family as their king. They also said that he should not be King of England unless the trade, freedom, and religion of Scotland were fully established.

The English Parliament, on the other side, passed a bill declaring that the Scotch Parliament must agree with their settlement by Christmas, 1705, or all Scotsmen out of Scotland should be treated as aliens, and the importation of linen, sheep, and cattle from Scotland should be prohibited. This was a serious matter for Scotland, and caused great excitement.

Fortunately for both countries war was averted and wiser counsels prevailed. New commissioners were appointed to consider the matter, and a Union Bill

was passed by both Parliaments on May 1st, 1707. As this bill settled the relations between the two countries, which have lasted down to the present time, we may as well consider some of its provisions.

First, it was arranged that the two countries should be united under the name of Great Britain, and that, after the death of Anne, the succession to the throne should go to the Princess Sophia and her Protestant descendants. From this date there was to be community of rights and privileges between the two countries, except where otherwise agreed upon.

Scotland was to send to the United Parliament sixteen Peers to the House of Lords, and forty-five Members to the House of Commons. The Scottish Peers were to elect their own representatives, who should serve only during the one Parliament for which they were elected. The Scots now send sixty members to the House of Commons, but this is owing to the increase in population.

Furthermore, it was enacted that each country should retain its own laws and judges, as well as its own universities and National Church. The King of England is still required on his accession to take an oath to protect the Episcopal Church as established in England, and likewise the Presbyterian Church as established in Scotland.

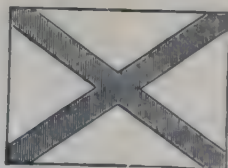
Then it was arranged that equal privileges of trade should be enjoyed, that the same duties should be levied on exports and imports, and that the same coins, weights, and measures should be used in both countries. There is no doubt that these latter provisions have done much to increase the wealth and prosperity of

Scotland. While both countries gained by the Union, there is every reason to believe that Scotland gained most by the compact.

The first united Parliament met on October 23, 1707, and in less than a century Ireland also was to join its



1. England.



4. Ireland.



3. Great Britain.



2. Scotland.



Great Britain and
Ireland.

THE UNION FLAG.

Parliament to that of Great Britain. A new standard, on which were blended the flags of both nations, the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew, was adopted as the national flag. It was called the Union Jack, as it was first projected by James I., the Latin name for James being *Jacobus*. This union of the two Parliaments marks the close of a long rivalry and much dispute between England and Scotland. Henceforth

the two nations were destined to work together as friends and allies, and their only rivalry was to be a friendly one in arts, science, commerce, and manufactures.

Let us now glance at the other event which made the reign of Anne famous. You have read elsewhere of the war on the Continent, in which the English under Marlborough beat the French in some great battles. This war not only brought great renown to our country on account of the bravery of its troops and the skill of its general, but it is also memorable for the advantages it brought to our country when peace was proclaimed at Utrecht in 1713. It has been said that the Treaty of Utrecht marks an epoch in our history almost as important as that marked by the defeat of the Spanish Armada.

In 1588 England entered the race for supremacy for the first time, but by 1713 England had won the race. Previously, Spain and Holland had gone down before the rise of the English; now France, which had been the first state in the world, was also to lose its reputation. The Treaty of Utrecht placed England right in the front of all the great European states, and for many years to come she had no rival. We may safely say that ever since 1713 no state has been more powerful than England, especially in wealth, commerce, and maritime power.

Now, what did the Treaty of Utrecht give to our country? Newfoundland, and Nova Scotia, and Hudson Bay Territory in America, and Gibraltar and Minorca in Europe. It also gave England the right to trade with Spanish America, thus breaking down this

monopoly. We may, therefore, conclude this chapter by noting that the greatness of England begins to be apparent in the reign of Queen Anne, and that the national policy is henceforth to be one of expansion in both hemispheres.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

SIR ROBERT WALPOLE AND THE SOUTH SEA SCHEME.

THE wars with France and Spain in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were really commercial wars, carried on so that England might gain a Colonial Empire and the supremacy of the seas. We may almost say that our history from 1688 to 1815 is little more than the record of a long struggle between England on the one side, and France on the other, for the possession of the colonial and maritime supremacy of the world. The expense of waging these wars was immense, but the rapid growth of our agriculture and manufactures enabled England to bear the burden.

Our foreign trade was growing so rapidly that when George I. came to the throne in 1713 our merchants were doing business not only in the Baltic and the Mediterranean, but also in India, Arabia, and Africa : while in the New World, the Treaty of Utrecht gave them power in both North and South America, where the Spaniards had hitherto been supreme.



QUEEN ANNE

From a Miniature after a Portrait by Sir Godfrey Kneller.

To meet this great expansion of trade many companies were formed. The most famous of them all was the South Sea Company, which was founded in 1711 to trade with South America. There was sure to be profit made by some of these companies ; but the public fondly believed that the profits would be enormous, and consequently crowds of people flocked to the City to purchase shares at ridiculous prices. As much as £1000 was given for a single share which was perhaps worth only £100.

There are times in the history of the world when the people of a country seem to be seized with an excitement, which causes them to do many foolish things. Such an occasion arose in connection with the South Sea Company. People believed that they would get a high rate of interest for the money they lent ; and they also thought that everything connected with the Company was safe, as the Government were interested in the matter.

The South Sea Company seemed to be prospering, when a host of other companies were formed, and, some of these being utterly absurd, many people lost their money. We can hardly imagine how anybody could be so foolish as to have anything to do with such bogus companies. A spirit of gambling seemed to have seized the people, who invested their money quite heedless of the soundness of the companies. One such company was formed for importing Spanish donkeys into England ; another for making a wheel, which should have perpetual motion ; and another for turning quicksilver into solid metal. Most absurd of all, there was one in which people were asked to invest



*Carga Finissima de Inglatierra
de la Nueva Fabrica
N.º Con Yards*

RIO DE

LONDRES



TRADE LABEL OF THE SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

Guildhall Museum.

their money, of which no particulars were given, but which in due time should be made known !

No wonder that ruin fell upon all these deluded investors! Action was taken against the many sham companies, and then a general panic ensued. People were now as eager to sell their shares in these bogus schemes as they had previously been anxious to buy. The result was that the shares fell in value at once, and people found that their shares, once worth pounds, were now only worth pence. The ruin that resulted was widespread, and touched all classes of the community. A great outcry was raised, as it was thought the Government was to blame. The Chancellor of the Exchequer and other officials were tried for their share in the matter, and it was decided to expel the Chancellor from Parliament. One of the other officials died before the inquiry was over, and another committed suicide.

It was evident that the calamity had not been caused by the South Sea Company, but by the speculation in the other worthless companies. Something, however, had to be done to restore the confidence of the nation. An Act was therefore passed which provided that the property of the directors should be appropriated for the relief of the sufferers, and the Government agreed to remit the seven millions of money owing to them by the South Sea Company. In these and other ways matters were set straight, mainly by the skill of a statesman named Walpole. So well did he succeed in his efforts that he became Prime Minister, and retained that office for twenty-one years.

Sir Robert Walpole was the son of a Norfolk squire, who had entered Parliament in 1702. He became Chancellor of the Exchequer to George I.,

but the king and his minister not agreeing, Walpole resigned in 1717. When Sir Robert Walpole therefore



SIR ROBERT WALPOLE. Picture by J. B. van Loo.

became Prime Minister in 1721, it was recognised that he was the only man who could put matters right.

We cannot go into the history of Sir Robert Walpole but we may say that from 1721 to 1742 he

proved a sagacious minister, and did his utmost to keep peace at home and abroad. It is true he bribed members of the House of Commons, and used money freely to gain his own ends; but we have to remember that in those days bribery was not looked upon as a crime. Now, at election times, people would be punished for giving or taking bribes, whereas in Walpole's time they expected plenty of money and presents.

Walpole of course gained enemies, and his fall was brought about because he did not want to go to war with Spain. Ever since the Treaty of Utrecht there had been trouble between English and Spanish traders in America. English smugglers were often seized by Spanish coast-guards and ill-treated. Not only this, but often at sea, far from the Spanish coast, Englishmen had been cruelly treated. Matters at last came to a crisis. One day a man named Jenkins produced before the House of Commons what he said was his ear, which he declared had been cut off by the Spaniards, who bade him carry it to his king.

The truth of this story is extremely doubtful, but the story of "Jenkins's Ear" decided the question that England must go to war with Spain. Walpole disliked war at all times, and he disapproved of this war as unjust. When war was declared the bells rang for joy. On hearing them, Walpole said bitterly: "They are ringing the bells now, they will be wringing their hands soon."

This war was unfortunate for the country and for Walpole. People thought Walpole did not conduct it with sufficient energy; and, at last, the opposition to

him was so strong that he was forced to resign in 1742. He only survived his defeat for three years, and died in 1745. Walpole has left behind him a name for steadiness, prudence, and vigilance, and he served the true interests of his country better than any other statesman of his time.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

THE CONQUEST OF CANADA, OR ENGLAND AND FRANCE IN AMERICA.

THE great struggle between France and England in America lasted from 1740 to 1760, and decided that England was to be supreme in the Western Hemisphere. As you have already heard, English colonies had grown up since the reign of Elizabeth along the eastern coast of North America, and were fast becoming powerful and populous states. But France had seized the line of the St. Lawrence, and pushed her settlements along the great lakes and the Mississippi to the sea.

Now, notice what the effect of this was likely to be on the English colonies in the east. If France had been allowed to continue this policy, the English colonies would have been confined to the eastern coast, and all extension to the great and fertile plains of the west would have been prevented. There is no doubt that France disliked the provisions of the Treaty of Utrecht, and had determined since 1713 to do all that was possible to hinder English colonisation.

The war which began in 1740 went at first in favour of the French, and it was not till 1756 that the English realised the importance of gaining the mastery of North America. In 1755 Braddock, the English leader, had attacked a French stronghold, Fort Duquesne, and met with an overwhelming disaster. One of the results of this defeat was that the native Indians went over to the French side.

The next year, 1756, Montcalm, the French general, took Oswego, then pressed southwards, and built an impregnable post at Ticonderoga. If you refer to the map you will at once see that the English colonies were now threatened with disaster. In 1757 English fortunes sank lower than ever. The French were strengthening themselves on the Lakes and the Ohio, and they had the support of the Indians.

It was not till 1755 that England became really alarmed about the issues of the war. In that year William Pitt was at the helm of affairs in England, and he realised, and made the English realise, that the American conflict was a life and death struggle for the British supremacy. He chose new leaders in whom the nation had confidence. Fleets were despatched with new regiments, plenty of supplies, and ample money. The following year saw a change in the aspect of affairs, and at last the tide of the French successes was stayed.

Forbes, Amherst, Wolfe, and Howe were the generals chosen by Pitt. They all did well, but of course the crown of victory fell to Wolfe. Forbes forced his way across the Alleghanies, and in July he found the French had deserted Fort Duquesne. In 1758 the



WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM
Engraved by Richard Beckett

English landed on Cape Breton Island, and Louisburg, the key of Canada, fell into their hands. Other successes followed, and by the end of the year a way was opened to attack Canada in the rear. The English were now fired with hope and determination, while the French saw their colonies gradually passing over to their enemy.

The year 1759 proved to be one of the most memorable in our history. It was the year in which the French were badly beaten at Minden by some British regiments. It was the year, too, in which Hawke, amid a tempest, destroyed, at Quiberon, a mighty French fleet that was to threaten England with destruction. But, above all, 1759 was the year in which Wolfe broke the French power in America. So many glorious victories were gained by Englishmen in 1759, that men were forced to ask every morning what new victory there was, for fear of missing one! This great victory of Wolfe at Quebec, which gave Canada to England, was one of the most daring achievements and one of the most far-reaching events in our history.

The hero of Quebec was only thirty-three when he fell mortally wounded, but into his short life he had crowded many great deeds. Wolfe was anything but handsome and heroic in appearance: indeed, he was lean and lanky, and his features were not expressive. He was a chronic invalid, but he had, like Nelson, a perfect genius for fighting, with a strange power of gaining the goodwill of his soldiers. Such was the agent chosen by Pitt to achieve success across the Atlantic.

It was the middle of February, 1759, when General

Wolfe left our shores with a fleet having 9000 troops on board. It was his intention with this force to attack Quebec from the river. But Amherst was to support him by driving the French down Lake Champlain, and Prideaux was to attack Montreal. Both Amherst and Prideaux were then to join Wolfe in his



QUEBEC.

Drawing by Margaret Cecil, 1740, in the British Museum.

assault on Quebec. It so happened, however, that although Amherst and Prideaux succeeded in their operations, they were not able to join Wolfe, who was thus left alone to carry out his operations with his own army.

General Wolfe sailed up the St. Lawrence to besiege Quebec, but he was long unable to force a landing. Many vain attempts were made to reduce the city by

bombardment and by flank attack from the east. All seemed hopeless, and his position was daily becoming more critical. His health was bad, summer was passing away, and it looked as if the British fleet must withdraw from the river.

On September 10th Wolfe was looking through his telescope from the southern bank of the river, when he saw a path running up the opposite bank from a little cove, rather more than a mile and a half higher up the river than the fortress of Quebec. This place is now known as Wolfe's Cove. The bank is between 200 and 300 feet high, and at the top were to be seen the tents of a French outpost. Here Wolfe determined to attempt a landing. To mislead the enemy his troops were kept far above the town, and it looked as if the English meant an attack in another direction.

Fortune was now kind to Wolfe. His preparations were completed by the 12th of September. The autumn evening was bright, and, under the clear starlight, the General made his last inspection and uttered his final words of encouragement to his devoted troops.

It was about two o'clock in the morning of the 13th of September when the boats carrying Wolfe and his men made their way down stream. Wolfe was in the rear, and as he passed along on that silent night, he spoke to those in the boat with him of the poet Gray and the famous *Elegy*. He repeated the well-known lines :

“The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,

And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,

Await alike the inevitable hour,

The paths of glory lead but to the grave.”

As the stream bore him to glory and the grave he said, "I would prefer being the author of that poem to the glory of beating the French to-morrow." About four o'clock in the morning the cove was reached and Wolfe and his troops leaped on shore under cover of the darkness. The men clambered up the steep hill, staying themselves by the roots and boughs of the maple and spruce trees, and by six o'clock the whole English army had gained the summit of the cliffs and surprised the French picket at the top. At once Wolfe moved towards Quebec with about 4000 men.

When Montcalm, the French general, heard that the English had landed, he hurried forward with about 5000 soldiers, ready to meet his opponents. Between nine and ten o'clock the French were in battle array. Wolfe's soldiers had had two hours' rest, and moving steadily forward they reserved their fire by the general's orders. At forty yards' distance the word of command was given, and then the English poured into the lines of the French a regular, rapid, and exact discharge of musketry.

The French fell like corn under the reaper's sickle, and began to give way in all directions. Wolfe now led a charge, and was wounded in the wrist. Still pressing forward he received a second ball, and when the victory was decided he was struck a third time, and mortally, in the breast. He was carried to the rear, and heard, while still conscious, that the enemy were in flight. He turned on his side, thanked God, and died in peace.

The battle was all over before noon. Montcalm fought bravely, and did all he could to gain the

victory. He seemed everywhere on the field, but as he retreated with his flying troops he was shot through the body. Before the next day dawned, Montcalm, like Wolfe, had gone to his rest.

Quebec, the strongest fortress in the world after Gibraltar, surrendered on the 18th of September, and Canada was won. A thrill of relief passed over the colonies, and the news of the victory and death of Wolfe reached England on October 17th. It was said that there followed a "mourning triumph." Wolfe's body was brought to England and buried at Greenwich, in his native county of Kent. A monument was raised to his memory in Westminster Abbey, and his name will ever live in the hearts of Englishmen as the man who saved Canada.

The surrender of Quebec did not terminate the war. In the following year, however, Montreal surrendered, and then England was mistress of the continent of North America, from Florida to Labrador.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

THE STRUGGLE FOR INDIA, OR ENGLAND AND FRANCE IN ASIA.

IN the last chapter we considered the results of the rivalry between England and France in the New World. In this chapter we shall turn our attention to a similar struggle in the Old World. There is some similarity between the two struggles, as the

rivalry both in Canada and India was for trade. Both countries had brave commanders to fight their battles, and in each case victory rested with the English, probably because they had greater sea-power. We



ORIGINAL ARMS OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY, 1600.
 Danver's "India Office Records."

must remember, however, that Wolfe received assistance from the Home Government, while Clive in India was fighting for the East India Company.

Before we can understand the great work of Clive we must go back to the beginning of the seventeenth century. The year 1600 saw the formation of the East India Company, which was granted a charter by

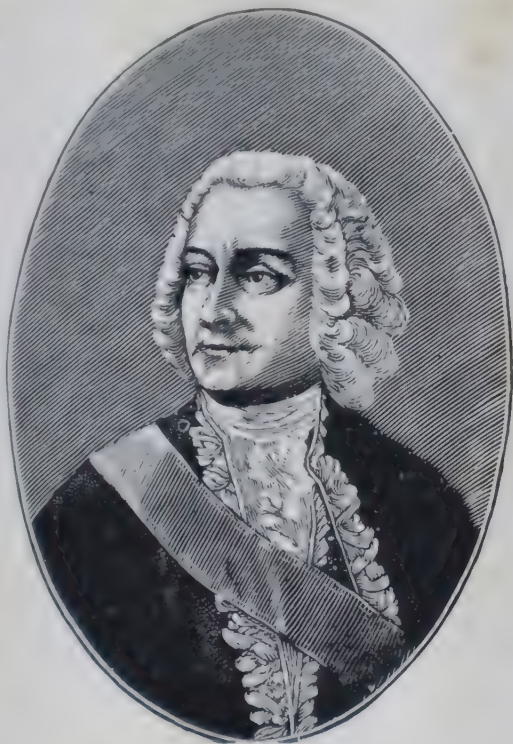
Queen Elizabeth for the purpose of trading in the East. This association of private merchants received protection from the Great Moguls, who then ruled India. By the permission of one of these rulers it had built Fort St. George and the town of Madras in 1639. Charles II. gave Bombay to the Company, which he had received from Portugal when he married Catherine of Braganza. Towards the close of the seventeenth century, in 1688, the Mogul gave a piece of ground on the Hoogly, where Fort William was afterwards built, and round which Calcutta speedily grew up. Thus the East India Company were in possession of three important trading stations in India.

The year 1707 saw a great change in India, for in that year Aurungzebe, the Great Mogul, died, after a reign of nearly 50 years. His vast empire began to decline, and by 1744 the power of the Great Mogul was almost gone. The inferior rulers, who had been kept in order by Aurungzebe, now quarrelled and fought with each other. A new power, however, arose in India, and for some years the Mahratta chieftains practically had the mastery.

The power of the Mahrattas was checked by both the French and the English in a remarkable manner. The French had a settlement at Pondicherry, whose governor was Dupleix, a very able man, who was the first to drill the natives and train them as soldiers, or Sepoys as they came to be called. He was also the first European to perceive that he could gain considerable advantage by taking part in the native quarrels. If the English supported one chief, then Dupleix took the side of his rival. This policy

answered for a time, and we find that the candidate whom Dupleix assisted became Nizam, while Dupleix himself became Governor of the Carnatic, from Kistna to Cape Comorin.

It now seemed that the English would be unable to oppose the French, and that their trading station at Madras must fall into French hands. When things were at their worst there arose a deliverer in the person of a clerk, named Robert Clive, a young man of twenty-five in the service of the Madras traders.



DUPLEIX.

Clive was the son of a Shropshire gentleman, who had been glad to get rid of him owing to his waywardness and neglect of his studies. From his early years Clive showed a most daring spirit, and was long remembered for his strange deeds in his native village of Market Drayton. On one occasion he climbed the church steeple and seated himself astride a spout near the top. On another occasion he flung himself into a gutter to form a dam and assist his playmates in flooding the cellar of a shopkeeper with whom he had quarrelled. At various schools to which he was sent

he was idle and disobedient, and yet he became the man who won India for the English.

During the hostilities between the English and French traders in India, the merchants' clerks were often compelled in self-defence to turn soldiers. At such times Clive was always to the front, and his name is honourably mentioned. His great opportunity, however, came when the news reached Madras of the successes of Dupleix. Then it was that Clive accepted a captain's commission and bade adieu to trade. Henceforth he shone as a most skilful and courageous commander.

Captain Clive left Madras in August, 1751, with a small army of only 500 men, most of whom were Sepoys. A few days' march brought the gallant little band within ten miles of Arcot, the capital of the ruler whom Dupleix had set up. Clive was within sight of the outposts of the garrison when a violent storm of thunder, lightning, and rain arose. Clive, nothing daunted, pushed on, and so astonished was the garrison of Arcot that a panic seized them, and they fled in haste from the city. Thus Clive, without striking a blow, took possession of the town and fort.

Soon afterwards, however, the native allies of France laid siege to Arcot, and for several weeks it seemed as if Clive and his men must be starved into surrender. At length the much-needed assistance came, and the siege was raised. Gaining his freedom, Clive won one success after another, and by 1753 he had firmly established the power of England in south-eastern India.

The French power was now fast waning in India.



WARREN HASTINGS.

Painted by Sir Joshua Reynolds.

Dupleix was recalled to France, and the native rulers transferred their allegiance to the English. The East India Company and the Home Government also made up their minds to expel the French from India. Before that could be accomplished, Clive had to overcome the native ruler of Bengal, who was named Surajah Dowlah. He wished to seize the property of the English merchants at Calcutta, and so he flung 145 Englishmen and one Englishwoman into a small room, which was afterwards called the Black Hole of Calcutta. The story is so well known, that we need do no more than refer to the fact that only 23 persons came out alive from this horrible prison.

Clive was sent from Madras to avenge this outrage, and on June 23rd, 1757, he won a great victory at Plassey over the army of Surajah Dowlah. Just as the victory of Wolfe at Quebec on the St. Lawrence won Canada, so the triumph of Clive at Plassey on the Ganges won India for the English.

Another ruler, who was friendly to the English, was raised to the throne, and at his hands Surajah Dowlah met his death. Three years later the English were supreme in the Deccan, and in 1761 Pondicherry was taken. This was the last step in destroying French influence in India. Since that time England has, step by step, added to its possessions in India, but we must ever remember that Clive laid the foundation of our Indian Empire.

In 1774, Warren Hastings, Governor of Bengal, was made the first Governor-General of India. Hastings stands in quite the first rank of English statesmen in India; and, although his rule was not free from

mistakes, we must acknowledge that he worked with untiring zeal and industry to extend and consolidate British power in India.

Warren Hastings was recalled to England in 1786, when he was impeached on several charges of misconduct while in India. This memorable trial of Warren Hastings lasted several years, and although Burke and Sheridan used all their eloquence against him, Hastings was acquitted in 1792.

The great work begun by Clive and Warren Hastings has been continued by brave soldiers and notable statesmen. It is true that India was won by the sword, but England has given peace and prosperity to the three hundred millions of that vast dependency. England will hold India because it strives to give freedom and justice to the struggling masses of people of all races and of all religions, who, if left to themselves, would perish by war and brigandage.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

THE LOSS OF OUR AMERICAN COLONIES.

THE last two chapters dealt with the great triumphs of Wolfe in Canada and of Clive in India. We have now arrived at a period when, for a time, it seemed that the expansion of Britain had been checked, and that defeat must give place to victory. The early years of the reign of George III. are memorable for the schism in Greater Britain, for some of the

American colonists determined to sever the tie which bound them to the Mother Country.

Let us trace the causes which led to this American Revolution, and then briefly consider the results. You have already heard of the formation of the American Colonies on the Atlantic seaboard, and of the assistance which England derived from them in her struggle with France during the Seven Years' War. These colonies were all strongly attached to England, and valued the English liberties which they had inherited. They had remained true to England, as they feared to come under the power of France. No sooner, however, was France driven from America than the colonies lost this fear, and did not hesitate to oppose what they considered the unjust treatment of England.

The English Government had to keep a large army in America, and, in order to meet the cost of their maintenance, it was decided to make the colonies pay some of the expenses. Accordingly, the Stamp Act was passed, by which a duty was levied in stamps upon all legal documents and writings. This tax met with much opposition in America, and even in England many considered it unwise to tax the colonies because they were not represented in our Parliament.

The opposition to the Stamp Act was so strong that our Government was forced to repeal it. In 1767 another attempt was made, and duties were levied on tea, paper, glass, and other articles exported to our American Colonies by England. The colonists unanimously resolved not to buy any of these articles from our country; and, as this loss of trade was



ruinous to the English, these duties were repealed in 1770, except a small duty on tea. During all this friction between England and America, a new spirit was being fostered among the colonists, who now began to feel that they could get along as an independent body without any help from England.



BRITISH STAMPS FOR AMERICA.

From Harper's Magazine, Copyright, 1876, by Harper & Brothers.

When, therefore, it was decided to continue to levy the duty on tea, the colonists proceeded to extreme measures. In 1773 a cargo of tea which had just arrived in the port of Boston was thrown into the sea by the people. The British Government then decided to abolish the charter of the rebellious colony and to close the port. This brought matters to a crisis; and affairs had gone so far that it was felt that the dispute could only be settled by force of arms.

The English Government sent troops over to America, thinking at first that the conflict would be a short one. The first battle was in 1775 at a place called Lexington, not far from Boston. There the

English were defeated, but in the next year the tide turned in their favour. Bunker's Hill was won, and it looked for a time as if the Americans would suffer defeat on all sides.



Snowden, "Medals of Washington."

The Americans, however, received assistance from two quarters. In the first place, there appeared George Washington, a man who showed extraordinary powers as a general, and who led his followers on to victory. In the second place, the Americans received

much help from France, who was glad to inflict some damage upon their old enemies.

The year 1776 is memorable for the American Declaration of Independence. By it the colonists cast off the yoke of England, and declared themselves an independent nation. The thirteen colonies were now known as the United States, and their independence dates from July 4th, 1776.

The further conduct of the war may be briefly told. The year 1777 saw the surrender of General Burgoyne, the English Commander-in-chief at Saratoga ; and four years later to a day, on October 17th, 1781, Yorktown, defended by Lord Cornwallis, surrendered to the Americans. This disaster put an end to British hopes of conquering America. But it was not till September, 1783, that Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and John Jay brought about a peace by which Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the United States.

Now, what were the results of this war ? It was arranged that the territory of the United States should extend from the Great Lakes to the 31st parallel of north latitude, and from the Atlantic to the Mississippi. Spain had joined the United States and France in the war, and as Spanish soldiers had conquered Florida, that peninsula and Louisiana surrounded the United States on the south and the west, while British territory bounded the United States on the north and north-east.

More than one hundred years have now passed away since the Declaration of Independence, and during that time the United States have advanced in a marvellous manner. Their territory now stretches across the

whole of the continent of North America, a distance of 3000 miles, and it extends southward to the Gulf of Mexico. They possess a teeming population, composed of persons from almost every country in the world.

Their government is Republican, and their chief magistrate is a President, who is elected every four years. Of course the Americans, although separated from us in government, have many points in common. They are mainly of our race, and their language and sentiments are largely English. It should be the endeavour of these two great nations to cherish the most friendly feelings, and to unite in all that tends to peace and progress.



FIRST UNITED STATES FLAG.
Adopted by Congress in 1777.

CHAPTER XL.

GREAT INVENTIONS, OR THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

THE long reign of George III., which began in 1760 and did not end till 1820, was famous for three Revolutions — the American Revolution, of which you have just read; the Industrial Revolution, which began before the American War was over; and the French Revolution, which extended from 1789 to 1815. This last Revolution has been dealt with in the Second Book of

this series, so that we can now give our attention to the Industrial Revolution.

It is a great mistake to suppose that the greatness of England has been entirely built up by the gallant deeds of her sons on many a battlefield. We revere the memories of Wolfe and Nelson, of Blake and Wellington ; but we must never lose sight of the fact that the sons of England in their own land and in their own homes have achieved much of the success which makes England prosperous. "Peace hath its victories no less renowned than war," and so we should honour the name of a Watt, and of a Stephenson, and of every man who has done something to further the industrial progress of our country.

The Industrial Revolution was brought about by the great inventions of the latter half of the eighteenth century. These inventions increased our powers of production in mining, manufactures, and agriculture more than a hundred-fold. The result was that England became the richest country in the world, and so was able to keep up a long struggle with France. At the close of the conflict, which ended with Waterloo in 1815, England was in the forefront of European nations both in commerce and politics.

These inventions were so remarkable, and followed one another so rapidly, that it will be interesting to review them very briefly. The first in order of importance was the application of steam to manufactures. In 1769, the year in which Wellington and Napoleon were born, James Watt took out his patent for the steam-engine. Watt was a mechanician of Glasgow, and he turned his inventive faculties to

improve the rude machines in which steam had till now been used as a motive-power. He was long foiled



RICHARD ARKWRIGHT. Picture by Wright of Derby.

in his efforts, and it was not till 1785 that one of his steam-engines was set up by a Nottinghamshire cotton-spinner, whose works had been previously run only by water-power.

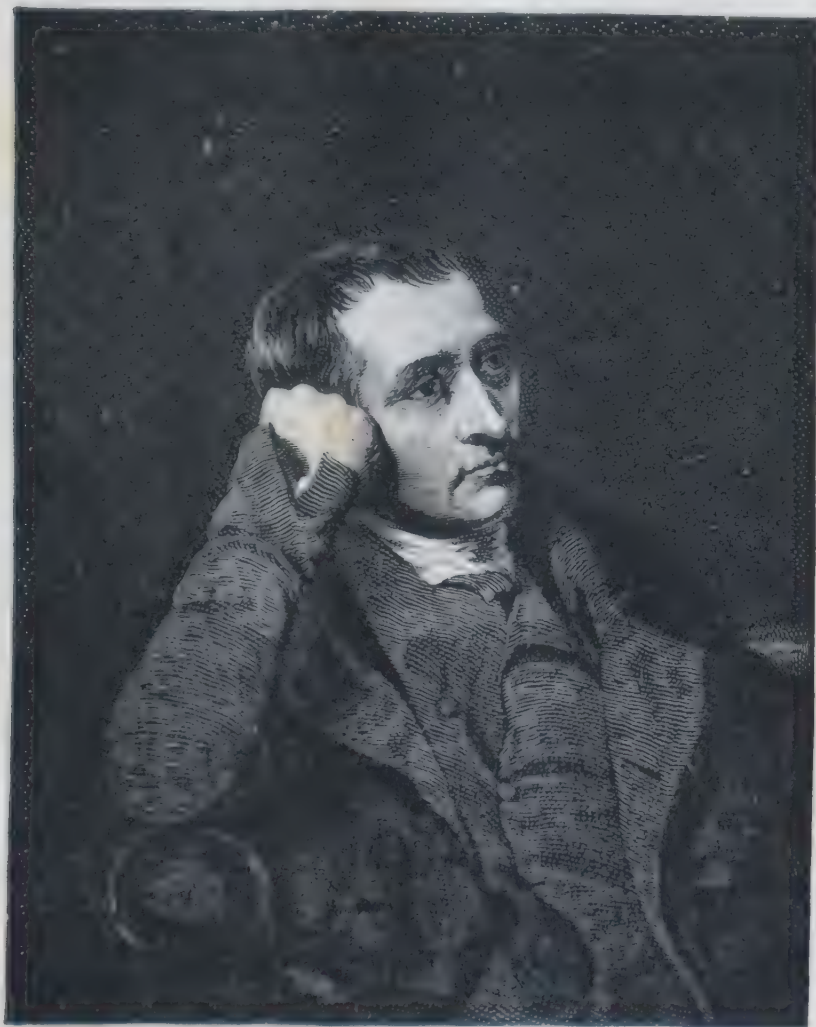
The invention of the steam-engine came at a time when the existing supply of manual labour was not equal to the demands of the great manufacturers in the north of England. It is not surprising, therefore, that the necessity of producing labour-saving machines was met by successive inventions; and it is interesting to note that the inventors were chiefly working-men, and that, far from gaining by their inventions, they died in poverty.

About 1767 James Hargreaves, a Lancashire weaver, invented the spinning-jenny. This was a frame with a number of spindles side by side, by which many threads could be spun at once, instead of by the slow process of the old one-thread hand spinning-wheel. At first Hargreaves used the jenny in his own house, and found he could spin eight times as much yarn as before.

In 1769 Arkwright produced his spinning-machine or water-frame; and in 1771 he set up a mill where he used this machine, which was worked by water-power. Both these machines were superseded in 1779 by a machine called the "mule," because it combined the advantages of the two previous inventions. It was the invention of Samuel Crompton, a Lancashire spinner. This machine effected an enormous increase in production, and now 12,000 spindles can be worked by it at once and by one spinner.

These three inventions so much increased the power of spinning wool and cotton that the weavers could not keep pace with the spinners. A machine was now required that would facilitate the process of weaving. The weavers had not long to wait, for in 1785 the "power-loom" was patented by Dr. Cart-

wright, a clergyman of Kent. The invention was not taken up very heartily during his lifetime, and was not



SAMUEL CROMPTON. After a Portrait by Allingham.

much used till 1813. But the new machine was really the means of quickening and cheapening the weaving of textile fabrics.

When George III. became king the people were mainly engaged in agriculture, but by the end of the

eighteenth century many large towns had grown up, and their people were employed in manufactures. Hitherto the manufactures had been carried on in the homes of the people in Norfolk and the south-west of



WAGON. Pyne, "Costumes of Great Britain," 1808.

England: but now it was found cheaper to carry on the cotton and woollen trades in the great towns of Lancashire and Yorkshire, and to employ the operatives in factories.

Not only was there this increase in manufactures, but there was also an improvement in the means of transport. The old main roads had broken down, and

much of the trade had to be carried on by means of long trains of pack-horses. A new era began when Brindley, an engineer, joined Manchester with Liverpool by a canal in 1767. This experiment was so successful that canals were constructed in other parts of Great Britain, and before long there were no less than 3000 miles of navigable canals.

Then it was found that the coal beneath the soil could be turned to better account. Hitherto iron had not been worked to any extent, owing to the scarcity of wood, which was considered the only fuel by which it could be smelted. In the middle of the eighteenth century a process for smelting iron with coal was discovered, and at once the whole iron trade was revolutionised. Iron then became the working material of England: and it is mainly owing to its production of iron that our country has gained the first place as an industrial nation.

CHAPTER XLI.

WILLIAM PITT, OR THE UNION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

WILLIAM PITT was one of the most remarkable men of the reign of George III. He was son of the famous Earl of Chatham, and, like his father, he displayed very unusual abilities as a statesman. At the early age of twenty-one he became a member of the House of Commons, and his career was so distinguished that he

was made Prime Minister when he was only twenty-four. Such an event was unprecedented, and has



WILLIAM PITT. Picture by T. Gainsborough.

never since been known. William Pitt, however, justified the choice of his sovereign, and for many years he ruled England wisely and well.

Pitt was governing England at a time of great stress and anxiety, and it may be said that mainly owing to his statesmanship our country came successfully out of its difficulties. It was during Pitt's term of office that the French Revolution occurred, and from that time Pitt was chiefly engaged in frustrating the schemes of Napoleon.

It will not be possible to give particulars of the policy of Pitt with regard to his opposition to France. That has been told in another book. In this chapter we shall refer to his Irish policy, and find out how the Irish Parliament was united to that of Great Britain.

You have already heard of some of the troubles of Ireland, and know something of its history from the days of Henry II. There is no doubt that much of the misery and unhappiness of Ireland arose from the fact that its conquest had never been properly accomplished, and that the English never understood the Irish, who were different in race, religion, and sentiment from their conquerors.

Cromwell had much to do with the Irish hatred of the English, for the Protector had used harsh and cruel measures to subdue Ireland. Then again, when William III. became king, Ireland had to go through what proved to be almost a civil war, and Londonderry and the Boyne left bitter memories behind them for many long years. For nearly eighty years after 1689 there was a period of English ascendancy, and the result was seen in the opposition of the Irish Catholics and Protestants.

This opposition reached its climax about the time of the American revolt, and in 1782 the Irish Parliament

took advantage of English difficulties and issued a Declaration of Independence. The Irish demands gave much anxiety to the king's ministers, and as they were not then strong enough to resist the pressure put upon them, they reluctantly yielded. Ireland was



THE PARLIAMENT HOUSE, DUBLIN.

now to be ruled by its own Parliament, and during the next eighteen years the Irish Protestants governed, and excluded Roman Catholics from power.

This was very unfortunate. The majority of the Irish were Roman Catholics, yet only Protestants were allowed to vote for members of Parliament, or to sit in Parliament. Then it seemed very absurd that this separate Parliament at Dublin should be making laws without the British Parliament in London having any control.

In 1791 a society known as the "United Irishmen"

was formed for the purpose of uniting the Roman Catholics and Protestants into a common cause against England. Pitt sent Lord Fitzwilliam over to Ireland as Viceroy, and he proposed that Roman Catholics should be admitted to seats in Parliament. Fitzwilliam was a friend to the Roman Catholics, and did what he could to bring about measures of conciliation. Unfortunately, he did not succeed, and in 1795 Fitzwilliam was recalled, and the Irish Roman Catholics were bitterly disappointed.

The Irish now thought that no good was likely to come from England, and an open rebellion broke out. The rebellion was headed by the "United Irishmen," who wanted to establish an Irish Republic under the protection of France. In 1797 a French fleet arrived in Bantry Bay to assist them, but was driven back to sea by a storm. The English had to put down this insurrection by force of arms, and in 1798 there was much bloodshed in Ireland.

It was feared at one time that Dublin would fall into the hands of the rebels, but they were defeated at Vinegar Hill, near Wexford, by the English troops under General Lake. In August of that year a French force of 1100 landed in Killala Bay. The French troops were, however, too few to make much resistance, and in September they surrendered.

Pitt did not desire a continuance of this strife, and he sent over a Viceroy, Lord Cornwallis, who did his best to bring about a better state of things. Cornwallis was a just man, and by his firmness he managed to promote a more kindly feeling between class and class. Pitt's plan was to unite the British and Irish Parliaments.

The Irish Parliament was very corrupt, and certainly did not represent the Irish people. Pitt, therefore, decided to buy up enough votes in it to get it to pass a bill for uniting the Irish to the British Parliaments. For this purpose he used a young Irishman, Lord Castlereagh, who secured a majority of votes for Pitt's Bill by distributing money and by granting peerages.

The terms of union were thus arranged, and in 1800 the Irish Parliament at Dublin ceased to exist: and after January 1, 1801, there was but one Parliament for the two countries. By the Act of Union one hundred Irish members entered the English House of Commons, and twenty-eight peers and four bishops entered the House of Lords.

Pitt, however, wanted to do yet more to conciliate the Irish. He had generous intentions, and it was his wish to win over the Irish Catholics by allowing them to hold State offices and to be able to sit in Parliament. But the king and the English would not hear of this, and Pitt was compelled to resign his position as Prime Minister in 1801. Twenty-eight years had to elapse before this measure of justice was conceded to Ireland, and Catholic Emancipation was not carried till 1829, in the reign of George IV.

There is little more that need be said of the career of William Pitt. It was the general wish of the country in 1804 that he should be Prime Minister once more, and guide his country in the great struggle with Napoleon. The year after his return to office England lost her greatest sailor at the Battle of Trafalgar, and in the year 1806 she mourned her greatest statesman.

Pitt's health had been failing for some time and he died worn out with work and anxiety. In his own



HENRY GRATTAN. Picture by F. Wheatley, 1782

days he was regarded as "The Pilot that weathered the storm." We too, can look back on his work with

gratitude, for he saved our country by giving to her power at sea. He was a true patriot, and it is recorded that the last words spoken by him were, "How I leave my country !"

CHAPTER XLII.

PEACE AND REFORM.

You read in the last chapter of the death of William Pitt, the Prime Minister who secured England from invasion by France and left her mistress of the seas. But Napoleon, who was now Emperor of France, became, owing to his great victories, almost master of the Continent. The two great rival powers of land and sea were now left face to face. At last the Emperor's army was broken by a rising of the Spanish people, and England at once backed them by sending her troops to support the people of the Peninsula.

The story of Wellington's successes in Spain is well known, and so we must pass rapidly on to the end of Napoleon's career. While the French were being hard pressed in Spain, Napoleon's empire broke down before a coalition of the European Powers. Napoleon was driven into exile at Elba, but he soon made his escape to France, and was received by the French with open arms. His end was, however, at hand. In 1815 he met Wellington's army at Waterloo, where he received a crushing defeat. Napoleon was captured and banished to St. Helena, where he afterwards died.

The victory of Waterloo closed a long period of war, and it formed the opening of a new era in our history. So many great events have happened since 1815 that it would be impossible for us to do more



NAPOLEON.

than glance at some of the more noteworthy landmarks during the last hundred years.

It was well for England that peace came in 1815, for the long wars with France had been very costly in blood and money, and our country was nearly exhausted. It is true that England had made many conquests at sea, but she only retained Malta, Ceylon, the Cape of

Good Hope, Mauritius, and some of the West India Islands. On the other hand taxation was very high; the National Debt reached eight hundred millions, and there was general distress. The harvest had been bad, bread was dear, and there were riots all over the country. Such was the condition of affairs when the long reign of George III. came to an end in 1820.

The accession of the new king, George IV., did not improve matters. He was not popular, and his private life was bad. There arose a general feeling throughout the country that some reforms were urgently needed, and one of the most important, the Roman Catholic Emancipation Bill, was passed, after much opposition, in 1829. This bill was similar to that designed by Pitt, and admitted Roman Catholics to Parliament and to all but a few of the highest posts in the service of the Crown.

No sooner was this bill carried than there arose a demand for Parliamentary reform. William IV. became king in 1830, on the death of his brother, George IV., and he was personally favourable to the demand for reform. But his Prime Minister, the Duke of Wellington, refused all concession, and for some time there was much anxiety owing to the alarming riots all over the country. The Duke of Wellington, once the saviour of his country, was now most unpopular. The mob broke the windows of his London house and threatened him with violence.

His refusal to grant reform drove him from office, and the Whigs now came into power under the leadership of Earl Grey. He recognised, as most thinking men did, that some sweeping changes were necessary.

These changes had to be made with regard to those who should have the power of voting, as well as to



CHARLES, SECOND EARL GREY.

From the Painting by Sir Thomas Lawrence, P.R.A.

the places or towns by whom representatives to Parliament should be elected.

Many boroughs which had once been busy towns or populous cities had fallen into decay. Yet these towns continued to send members to Parliament

notwithstanding the change of affairs. On the other hand many places, which had once been mere villages, had grown into populous and thriving towns, and yet in 1830 they sent no members to the House of Commons.

Here are some of the faults of the old system which Lord Grey proposed to alter. Old Sarum was only a green mound, without a single house, and yet it sent two members to Parliament. Gatton was only a ruined wall, yet had the privilege of returning two members. Birmingham and Manchester, with their teeming populations, were totally unrepresented.

The scheme of Lord Grey was to sweep away 60 small boroughs returning 119 members, and to give only one member apiece, instead of two, to 46 other boroughs not quite so small. The seats thus taken away were to be given to the great counties and towns of England, Scotland, and Ireland. The franchise was also proposed to be conferred on more persons, both in counties and boroughs. In the boroughs the franchise was to be given to all householders paying a yearly rent of £10.

When Lord John Russell introduced the Reform Bill in 1831 it was only carried by one vote. Soon afterwards the Ministry were defeated in Committee and had to retire. The general election, however, sent them back to power with a larger majority. A second time the bill passed the Commons, only to be rejected by the House of Lords.

Riots occurred all over the country, and the people declared they would pay no more taxes till the bill was passed. A terrible riot took place in Bristol,

where the constables were routed and soldiers were called in to quell the tumult. Prisons were broken open, the prisoners liberated, and some large houses burned to the ground. The riots were at last suppressed with great bloodshed and loss of life.

For the third time the bill was introduced, and passed the Commons in December, 1831, only to be promptly rejected by the Lords. It was now evident that strong measures were necessary if Lord Grey was to pass his bill. After much consideration he advised the king to create a sufficient number of peers to out-vote the opposition. The king reluctantly gave his assent, but it was not necessary to adopt this course. When the bill was again introduced into the House of Lords, one hundred peers walked out without voting. By this means the bill was at last carried, and became law in 1832.

There is no doubt that this Reform Bill did much good, as it admitted more people to share in the work of government. The work of reform was again to the front in 1867, when a second Reform Bill allowed the working-men of the towns to have the franchise. A third Reform Bill in 1884 was passed, and by it the agricultural labourers obtained votes.

Each Parliamentary Reform Bill has been the herald of a host of reforms in other directions. The first Reform Bill was followed by the Abolition of Slavery, a New Poor Law, and a Municipal Reform Act. After the second Reform Bill there was a host of reforms affecting Education, the Army, and the Irish Church: while the passing of the third Reform Bill was the forerunner of reforms in Parish and County Government.

Other nations have gained their ends by violent revolutions ; but England has gone steadily on granting reform after reform, and so making the government more stable and more acceptable to the people.

CHAPTER XLIII.

GEORGE STEPHENSON, OR, THE PIONEER OF RAILWAYS.

IN one of the previous chapters we found that the later years of the eighteenth century were remarkable for the Industrial Revolution, which was brought about by the inventions of such men as Watt and Hargreaves, Arkwright and Crompton. The early years of the nineteenth century witnessed a yet more remarkable revolution, which was owing to the invention of the locomotive by George Stephenson. This revolution in the mode of Transit is the most significant fact in our later history, and it will be interesting to read something of the man who so worked as to produce this great change in the mode of travelling.

George Stephenson was the second son of a fireman to one of the colliery engines. Little George first saw the light of day in 1781, and was born when his father was in great poverty, earning only twelve shillings a week, and having a family of six children to support on this miserable pittance. When quite a little laddie, George might have been seen amusing himself by making clay engines, with bits of hemlock stalk for



GEORGE STEPHENSON.

From the Painting by Henry William Pickering, R.A., in the National Portrait Gallery.

imaginary pipes ! Thus the child was father of the man.

George was sent early to work, and his first employment was the herding of cows at twopence a day ; but afterwards he was promoted to hoeing turnips and leading plough-horses, at the sum of fourpence per day. This work did not altogether please our little hero, and he found more interest in poking about in his father's engine-house. Indeed, his great ambition was to become a fireman, like his father : and to his great delight he was appointed, at the age of fourteen, to be his father's assistant at the rate of a shilling a day. The following year he got a situation on his own account, receiving a salary of twelve shillings a week. " And now," said he, " I'm a made man for life."

The next step in his upward career was to get the place of plugman, and now George devoted himself enthusiastically to the study of the engine under his control. It became a sort of pet to him, and he never wearied in taking it to pieces, cleaning it, and then putting it together again. By this means he gained a thorough knowledge of its working and construction.

In 1801 he was working at Black Callerton Colliery, and by dint of mending shoes and cleaning watches after his regular employment, he contrived to save his first guinea. He had also managed to gain a little education, for George Stephenson could not read or write till he had reached manhood. After the duties of the day were over he went to a night-school kept by a poor teacher at Water-row, where he took lessons in reading, spelling, and writing. This scanty know-

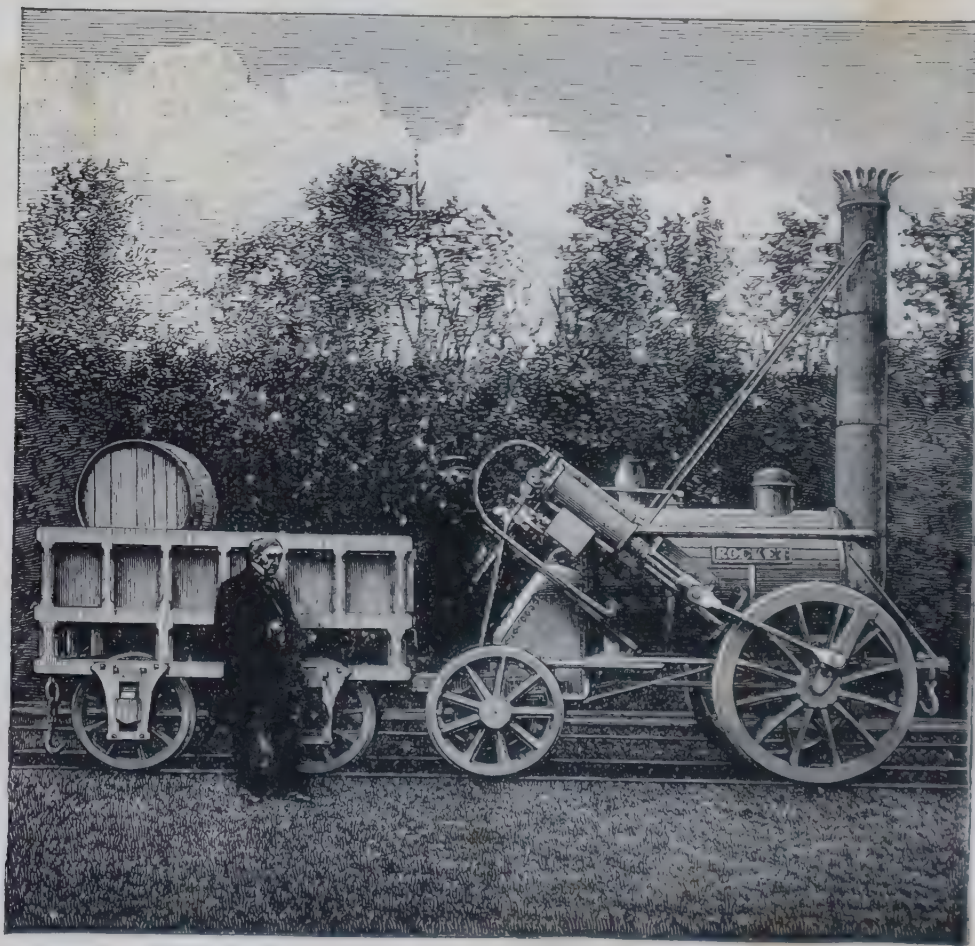
ledge he continued to improve by practising his sums with a bit of chalk on the sides of the colliery waggons, during the intervals for meals.

The first important step in the life of George Stephenson was his invention in 1815 of a colliery safety-lamp, for which he received the sum of £1000. Three years previously to this he had been appointed engine-wright at Killingworth Colliery, and it was here, by Lord Ravensworth's permission, that he constructed his first locomotive. At first it was not a very great success, but it drew a load of thirty tons up a somewhat steep incline at the rate of four miles an hour. Subsequently, however, he made a grand improvement by turning the waste-steam into the chimney to increase the draught, and thus puff the fuel into a brisker flame, and so create a larger volume of steam to propel the locomotive.

George Stephenson's success was now assured. He was appointed engineer for the construction of the first railway from Stockton to Darlington, and afterwards he completed the railway between Liverpool and Manchester. Before that line was opened a prize had been offered for the best locomotive. Stephenson entered the competition, and on October 14th, 1829, he had the satisfaction of knowing that he had gained the prize of £500. His engine, the 'Rocket,' with its tender, weighed only $7\frac{1}{2}$ tons, and could draw a load of $9\frac{1}{2}$ tons at a speed of 13 miles an hour: while without the load it could travel at the rate of 35 miles an hour.

The Liverpool and Manchester line was opened on September 15th, 1830, and, from that time, steam-power has gradually taken the place of the older modes of

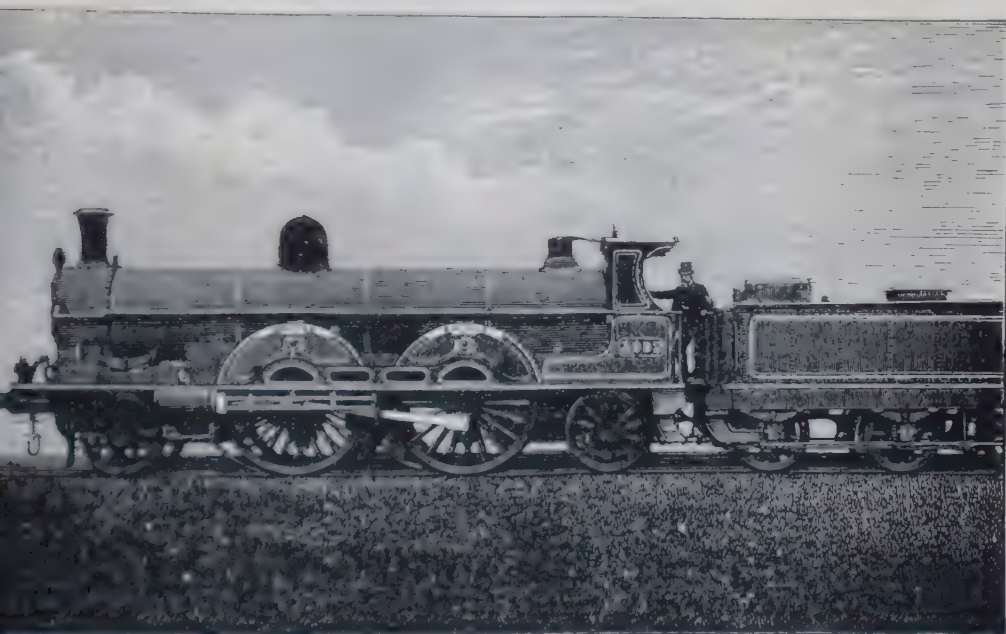
locomotion. Now our country is covered with a network of railways, and improvements in speed and comfort are constantly being introduced. All this is



THE "ROCKET."

owing to the genius of the north country lad—George Stephenson; and when we travel behind a 75-ton express passenger-engine, running at a speed of a mile a minute, it is worth remembering that it does not differ materially in construction from the 'Rocket.'

For the remainder of his life George Stephenson was busy as railway engineer in all parts of England, and in 1845 he visited Belgium and Spain. The chief feature of his character was honesty of purpose, and a dogged determination in carrying out his ideas. "I have fought," said he, "for the locomotive single-



L. & N.-W. R. "GREATER BRITAIN."

handed for nearly twenty years; I have put up with every rebuff, determined not to be put down." When addressing young men he was never tired of driving home the same truth—"Do as I have done—persevere." Such was the man and such was his work. His end came in 1848, while living at his country seat of Tapton, near Chesterfield.

A few figures will help us to realise the great advance in locomotion owing to this pioneer of railways.

In 1825, the Stockton and Darlington Railway was $8\frac{3}{4}$ miles in length, and this distance was covered in 65 minutes. Four hundred and fifty passengers travelled in the first train. At the close of 1899 there were 21,700 miles of railway in the United Kingdom, and, during that year, more than one thousand millions of passengers were conveyed over the iron rails.

CHAPTER XLIV.

CANADA UNDER BRITISH RULE, OR THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

THE long reign of Queen Victoria, which lasted from 1837 to 1901, was one of the most memorable epochs in our history. You know already something of the advances in science and of the improvements in the life of the working classes during her reign ; and you also know that Queen Victoria was a model sovereign, for she set an excellent example as a wise woman and a devoted ruler.

In some of the remaining chapters of this book we shall consider the reign of Victoria as an era of colonial expansion, and we shall briefly describe the building up of the empire in Canada, Australia, India, and South Africa. Every British citizen ought to be proud of the British Empire ; and when we think of its vast area, its great population, and its immense resources, we ought to reflect on the responsibility of the Mother Country towards her colonies. The chief feature, then, of

Victoria's reign was colonial expansion, with its after result, the consolidation of some of the colonies into a Dominion or a Commonwealth.

The young queen's reign opened amid many unpromising conditions of affairs at home. The working-classes were discontented, wages were low, and work was scarce. It was even thought that the young queen did not trouble herself about the poor and their troubles. Thousands of ignorant and miserable men all over the country joined the Chartist agitation, and they got some idea into their heads that the People's Charter would give them better food and wages and lighter work, if it were passed.

There is no doubt that in 1837 the poor hated the rich, and the wealthy despised the labouring classes. Some of the points in the People's Charter have since been granted, and there is a much better spirit in the country. The working classes have now more voice in the management of affairs, and the empire is no longer ruled entirely by the aristocratic classes.

There were other troubles besides those of a social or political character which had to be dealt with in 1837. There were colonial disturbances, and the first of these came from Canada. The condition of Canada was very peculiar, and it will be well to retrace our steps before we can understand the reason for the troubles in Canada. You will remember that Canada was conquered by the British in 1759, but it was not ceded to Great Britain till 1763. Then a bill was passed for the government of Canada in 1774, and it was expressly stated that the rights and feelings of the French inhabitants should be respected. Another



HER LATE MAJESTY QUEEN VICTORIA.

From a Photograph by Messrs W. & D. Downey, Ebury Street, S.W.

alteration was made by Pitt in 1790, when Canada was divided into Upper and Lower Canada, and this division really gave the former province to the British and the latter to the French inhabitants.

The result was not altogether satisfactory. The French people in Lower Canada did not seem alive to progress, for they were content to go on in their ancient ways, while the people of Upper Canada were full of the desire for commercial activity. It will be seen at once that the French of Lower Canada looked with suspicion on any legislation which would assist the progress of Upper Canada, as they thought it would interfere with their old customs.

Each province had its own Governor, Executive Council, Legislative Council, and Representative Assembly, elected by the people. It was in Lower Canada that the greatest difficulties arose, and there were constant disputes between the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council, which was appointed by the Crown. The grievances of the French seem to have had some existence. The Executive and Legislative Councils did not represent the feelings of the people, and the government was generally clumsy and perhaps corrupt.

The discontent gradually increased, and, when it was found that the Government would make no concessions, a rebellion broke out in Lower Canada in 1837. The rebellion was only a half-hearted affair, and was crushed almost at its first outbreak. It had, however, the effect of inducing the Home Government to grant some reforms which were urgently needed. Accordingly, in 1838 the Government sent out a very wise and

strong statesman, Lord Durham, to inquire into the best means of improving the government of Canada.

The result was that Lord Durham drew up a famous Report, in which he advised the union of Ontario and Quebec under one Legislative Council, and a Lower House elected by the people every four years. He also recommended other reforms, which were embodied in the Reunion Act of 1840. By this Act Canada won a full measure of responsible government, which it has enjoyed ever since.

A further and more important step was taken in 1867, when Canada and the other provinces of British North America were united under the title of the Dominion of Canada. The Dominion now includes the vast region known as British North America, with the exception of Newfoundland. The constitution of the Dominion is similar in all respects to that of the United Kingdom. There is a Federal Parliament consisting of the Governor-General, who represents the King, the Senate, and the House of Commons. Besides this, each province has its own Parliament, which manages its own local affairs.

Canada is now one of the most prosperous of our colonies, and its people are proud of their connection with the Old Country. The French population is as large as the English, and in the time of our anxiety they sent us help in South Africa, where they fought as bravely as British-born troops.

The area of the Dominion of Canada is over 3,600,000 sq. miles, or nearly equal to that of Europe. In 1825 its population was only a little more than half a million, whereas to-day it is estimated at 5½ millions.

The Canadian-Pacific Railway was completed in 1886, and has proved an important aid in the development and progress of the Canadian colonies. The great need of Canada is more settlers. There is an enormous area quite unfit for settlement; but there must be at least 400,000 sq. miles of fertile land, in a temperate climate, still waiting for energetic and able-bodied colonists to cultivate.

CHAPTER XLV.

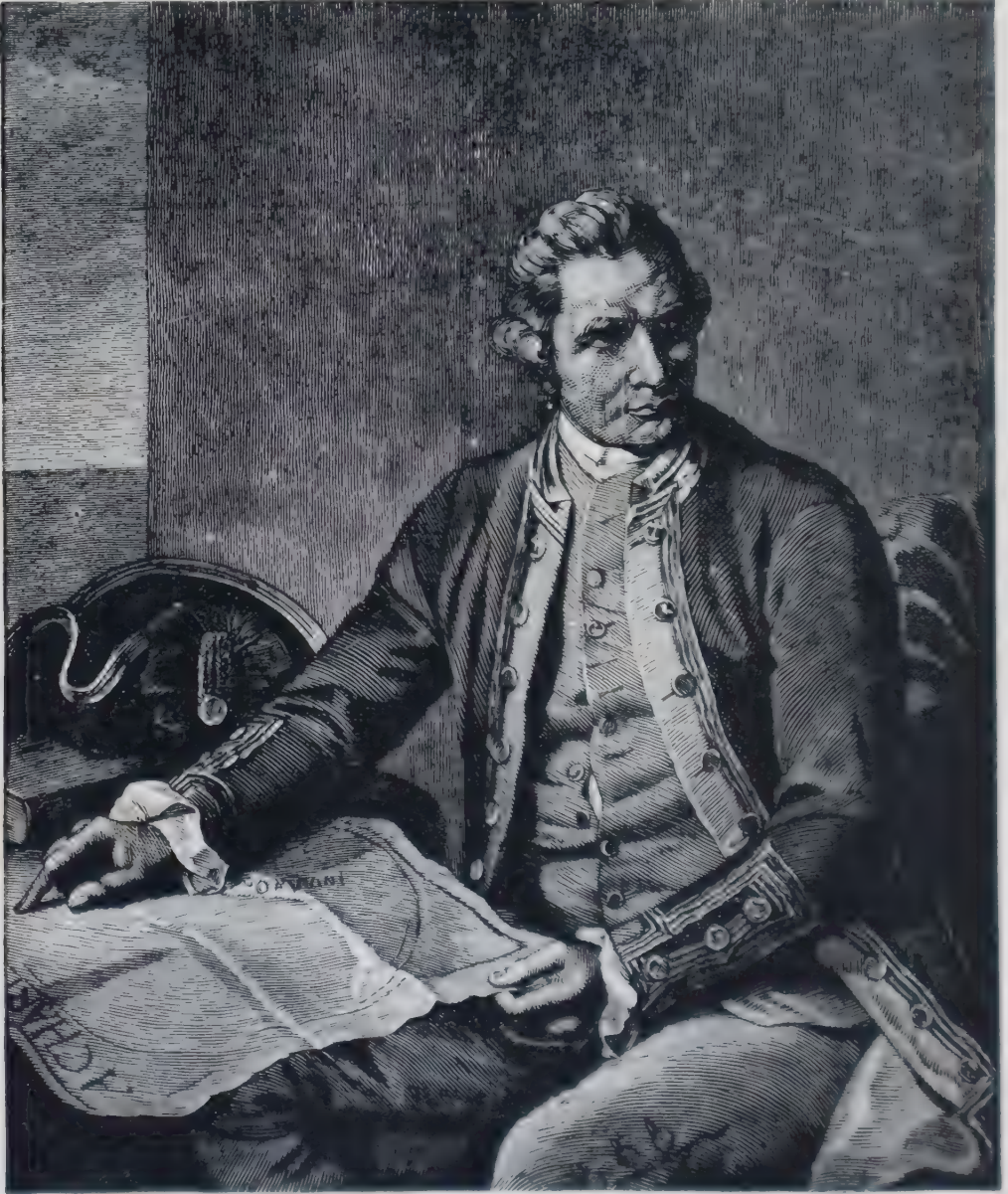
THE PROGRESS OF AUSTRALIA, OR THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA.

WE can now devote our attention to the progress of Australia during the reign of Queen Victoria. Unlike Canada with its two races, the people of Australia are mainly of British origin, speaking the English language. But Australia is like Canada in some respects, for it has made a great advance in the last century, and its various colonies are now united in one Commonwealth.

Australia first came into notice in Victoria's reign in 1840, when it was decided not to transport any more criminals from England to New South Wales. The system of transportation came to an end in 1857, and from that year the Mother Country has had to keep her criminals within her own borders.

This transportation of criminals dates from the time of Charles II., when the judges removed offenders to the North-American colonies. It was not, however, till 1787 that a cargo of criminals was shipped to

Botany Bay, on the eastern shore of New South Wales.



CAPTAIN COOK. After the Picture by N. Dance.

Afterwards the convicts were also sent to Tasmania and to Norfolk Island, this lonely island in the Pacific

becoming the penal settlement for the worst kind of convicts. As time passed on, the Australian colonies began to protest against this system of sending out our scoundrels; and when gold was discovered in Australia it was felt that the time had come when transportation should cease.

The ties that bind Australia to the Mother Country seem to grow stronger as time goes on. All our settlements in that great island have been of a peaceful character, and there is no record of wars and rebellions. From the first the Australian colonies were colonised by Englishmen, but the credit of the discovery of Australia really belongs to the Dutch or the Portuguese.

The first Englishman who explored this region was the famous sailor, Captain Cook, who, in 1770, made his first voyage round the world. Cook then saw enough of the country to convince him that it would be a desirable settlement for the English. Accordingly, in 1788 an English fleet was sent out, and anchored at a spot which, from the multitude and beauty of its flowers, came to be called Botany Bay.

For many years, people settled along the coast and made no attempt at inland exploration. This had been checked by the chain of mountains which run along the greater part of the east coast. But these mountains were crossed in 1813, for in that year a great drought had set in, and it was necessary for the settlers between the mountains and the sea to find new pasture for their flocks.

The rivers were next explored, and attention was directed to the possibility of crossing the continent. There were various unsuccessful attempts, but Stuart

accomplished this feat in 1860, when he journeyed from north to south. The following year saw the ill-fated expedition of Burke and Wills. These and other expeditions went to prove that the interior of Australia is not entirely a desert ; and also showed the feasibility of joining Adelaide and Port Darwin by means of the telegraph.



THE "DISCOVERY" (COOK'S SHIP).
Lindsay's "History of Merchant Shipping."

As we have seen, the oldest colony is New South Wales, which remained a Crown colony till 1842. Two great districts were cut off from it in later years, for Victoria became a self-governing colony in 1851, and Queensland in 1859. A great change had come about in Victoria in 1848 by reason of the discovery being made that the country was rich with gold. This led to an enormous rush of people thither from all parts of the world ; and scenes of the greatest excitement

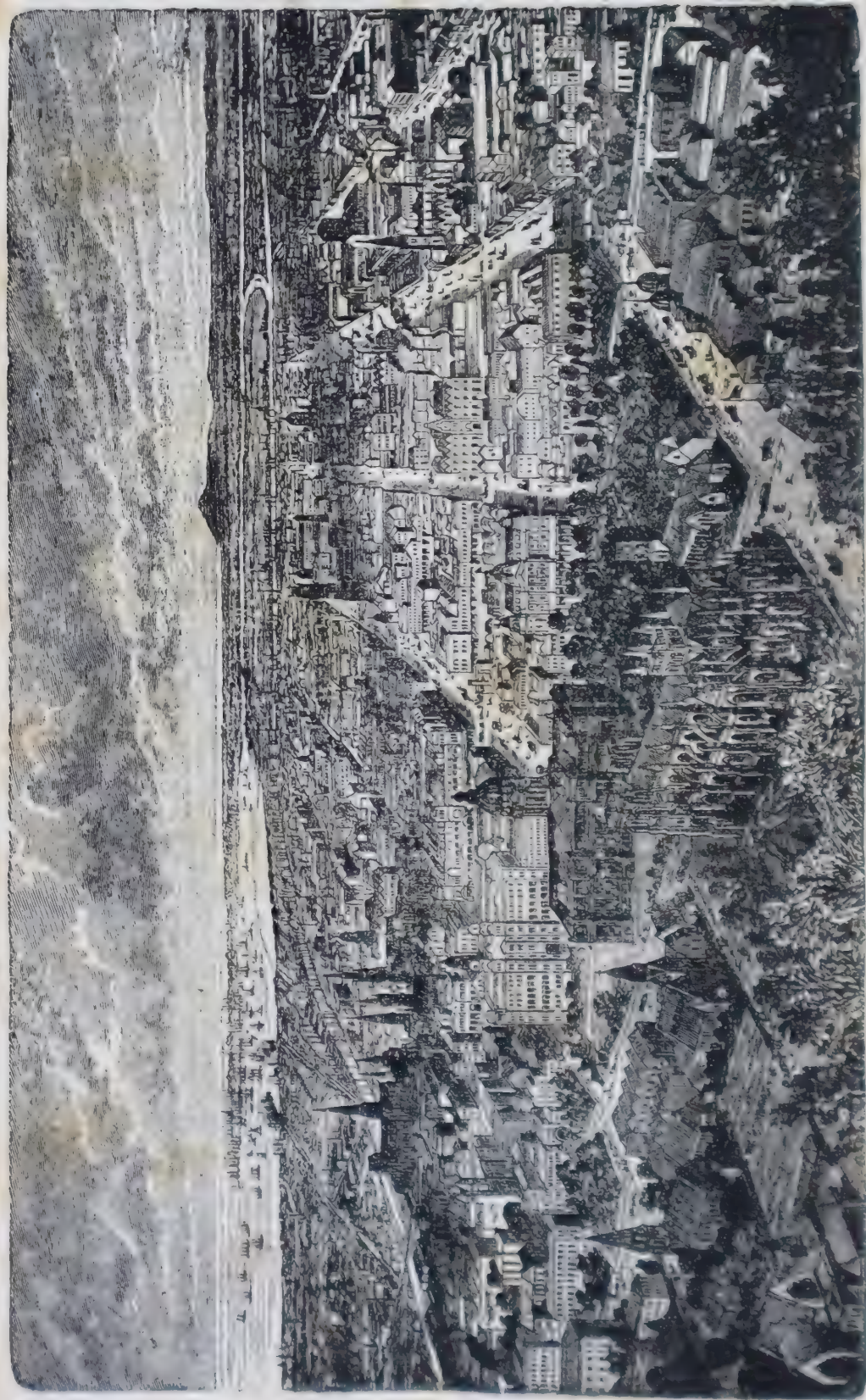
took place. Fortunes were often made in a week, or sometimes in a day. In 1850 the population of Victoria was 70,000, five years later it was over 300,000.

This was the beginning of a new epoch in Australia, and the English Government recognised that the colonies required new institutions. Before the end of 1854 the four colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania were each empowered to establish two Houses of Parliament, and a method of government like that of England was instituted. Since that date similar privileges have been granted to Queensland, and last of all to Western Australia.

Under these self-governing institutions, Australia has continued her career of rapid progress, and her three industries—pastoral, agricultural, and mining—have become firmly established. It was felt, however, that the example of Canada should be followed in having a Federal Parliament, and on July 9th, 1900, the British Parliament passed the Act to constitute the Commonwealth of Australia.

Thus, after years of self-government, the several colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, and Tasmania agreed to unite in one Commonwealth. This meant that a Central Government was to be formed consisting of two Houses of Parliament and a Governor-General, representing the British sovereign, who is assisted by a Council of seven Ministers of State.

The opening of the Federal Parliament took place on May 9th, 1901, by the Duke and Duchess of Cornwall and York, now Prince and Princess of Wales. It was the most important event and the most



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF MELBOURNE, AUSTRALIA.

imposing ceremony in their tour around the British Empire. The scene of the opening ceremony was the Exhibition Buildings at Melbourne. There was a crowd of 12,000 eager spectators to witness this event, when the Prince of Wales delivered a Message from the Throne and when the members took the oath.

Let us hope that Australia may advance even more rapidly in the future than in the past, and that this great Commonwealth, having an area of nearly three million square miles and a population of nearly four millions, may long cherish her connection with the Mother Country, and may find it good to be a member of the British Empire.

CHAPTER XLVI.

FROM PROTECTION TO FREE TRADE, OR, THE WORK OF PEEL, COBDEN, AND BRIGHT.

WHEN Victoria came to the throne, the working-classes did not enjoy the benefit of cheap food. Bread, for which we now pay 5d. or 6d. the quartern loaf was then as much as 1s. or 1s. 6d. Other articles, such as tea, sugar, and fruit, were then luxuries only used by the well-to-do classes. At the present day men are paid better wages, and live in greater comfort than was thought possible in 1837.

Now what is the cause of this great change! Mainly it is due to the abolition of the Corn Laws and

the introduction of free trade by Sir Robert Peel. The old Corn Laws were passed to secure a plentiful supply of corn at home, and to keep up the price of corn produced in England. In order to attain this

end, a duty was placed on corn imported into our country when the price of English wheat was below eighty shillings.

This was a bad system for the consumer. It had its advantages for the farmer and the landowner, who naturally did all they could to keep out foreign corn and to get a good price for their own produce. The system of Protection then in vogue led to dear food ; whereas now we have a free trade policy which gives us cheap food.

Now, let us see how the change from the one policy to the other came about. The population of these islands was growing with amazing rapidity, and re-

quired all the corn it could get. Then the price of corn rose to a famine pitch, and foreign corn could not be imported in sufficient quantity owing to the duty which was charged upon its importation. The



MANCHESTER OPERATIVE.

landlords were charging enormous rents for their lands, and the farmers did not mind paying them, for their profits were enormous. Every possible patch of land was growing corn, and the farmers had a golden harvest.

During this season of prosperity for the landowners and farmers, the mass of the people were on the verge of starvation. It was then that the country woke up to the fact that this system of Protection was a bad one, and that a great change must take place. An agitation for the repeal of the Corn Laws began in Manchester towards the end of 1836. In 1837 the Anti-Corn Law League was formed, when a number of men banded themselves together to abolish the Corn Laws, and held meetings all over the country. They declared that the only remedy for the evil was Free Trade, and that great harm was done by artificially keeping up the price of corn.

The two most prominent agitators were John Bright and Richard Cobden, who, by their eloquence and convincing arguments, converted their countrymen to their principles. Theirs was no easy task, for they had to withstand the opposition and prejudices of the landowners and their dependents, but by dint of perseverance and a strong faith in their cause, they finally overcome all difficulties.

By the end of 1845, the Anti-Corn Law League was strong in men, money, and enthusiasm. So great an impression had been made on men's minds that the end of the Corn Laws was felt to be in the near future. It was really nearer than the most sanguine could expect, for in 1846, Sir Robert Peel, the Prime



RICHARD COBDEN.

From the Painting by Lowes Dickinson in the National Portrait Gallery.

Minister, announced in Parliament that he had changed his opinions, and now believed that Free Trade would promote cheaper food, more industry, and a happier state of affairs among the poor.

Of course, Sir Robert Peel was bitterly assailed by his supporters, but, in spite of all opposition he carried his motion for the abolition of the Corn Laws. In February, 1846, Peel announced a fixed duty on corn for three years, and after that its entire abolition. His policy of Free Trade, that is, of allowing all kinds of goods to come into the country duty free, was afterwards applied to a number of other articles, and now we may say, England is a Free Trade country.

It was a great triumph for Bright and Cobden who lived to see the masses of their countrymen enjoy the blessings of cheap food. But it ended in the downfall of Sir Robert Peel, who was defeated immediately afterwards upon another question in Parliament and was forced to resign.

There is no doubt that Peel changed his mind on the question of the Corn Laws owing to the Irish Famine of 1845. The great mass of the Irish peasantry had as their only food the potato; and in that year there was a complete failure of the potato crop, which meant terrible suffering to the peasantry of Ireland.

Not only did a famine seize hold of a great part of Ireland, but all kinds of diseases followed as a consequence. People died everywhere, and corpses were found in remote huts in the mountains, by the side of country roads, and in the streets of towns. Coroners found it impossible to hold inquests; and coffins could not be bought in which to bury the dead.

Multitudes of the Irish died; the Irish landlords were ruined; and the country was drained by emigration. Since then the population of Ireland has gone on steadily decreasing, although the state of the Irish peasantry is better to-day than it was 50 or 60 years ago. Everything possible was done to alleviate the sufferings of the Irish, both by the State and by private individuals, but the potato famine of 1846-8 has left a deep mark on the history of Ireland.

We may conclude this chapter by remarking that Sir Robert Peel, after his defeat, retired into private life. His work was done, and his zeal, ability, and honesty have won him the gratitude of his countrymen. He died in 1850 from the effects of a fall from his horse, while riding along Constitution Hill.

CHAPTER XLVII.

LUCKNOW AND CAWNPORE, OR THE TALE OF THE INDIAN MUTINY.

WE have now arrived at a period of our history which is familiar to many persons now living; and it can safely be said that there are few stories in our history which are so painfully interesting as the tale of the Indian Mutiny. Never were Englishmen and women placed in such awful peril, and never was a brighter spirit of patriotism shown. At one period of the Mutiny it almost seemed that India must slip from our grasp; but, owing to the exploits of

Lawrence and Havelock, Outram and Wheeler, that terrible catastrophe was averted.

The Mutiny broke out at a place called Meerut, in May, 1857, when some native regiments mutinied, killed some of the British officers, and marched to Delhi. Here lived an old man who was said to be descended from the Mahommedan rulers of India. The mutineers hailed him as the Emperor of India, and hoped to expel the British from their country.

It would appear that this Mutiny was due to a very simple incident. A new rifle had been served to the troops in 1856, and an idea got abroad that the cartridges were made up in paper greased with cow's fat and hog's lard. It is true the paper was greased, but not with either of those fats, either of which was most objectionable to the Sepoy troops. The Hindoo regards the cow as a sacred animal, and the Mahommedan looks upon the hog with loathing. Thus men of both these races believed that the English were insulting their religious ideas.

Efforts were made to allay the panic, and in January, 1857, the Government ordered the withdrawal of the objectionable cartridges. The mutinous spirit, however, took hold of the Sepoys, and, as we have seen, the Mutiny began at Meerut. Lord Canning, the Governor-General, acted with promptitude, and sent troops from Calcutta to crush the mutineers at Delhi. Fortunately the troops in Southern India remained loyal; and with these and the Sikhs there was hope that Delhi would be saved. Delhi, however, was a large city, and some time elapsed before it could be taken.

In the meantime the mischief had spread, and on May 30th the Mutiny had broken out in Lucknow, the capital of Oudh. Sir Henry Lawrence, the governor, was forced to retreat before the mutineers, and he took with him a few Englishmen, besides women and children. They found safety in an enclosed house and grounds, known as the Residency, where they prepared to endure a siege. Sir Henry Lawrence was mortally wounded on July 2nd, and lingered two days in great agony. He gave directions for carrying on the defence, and then died calmly and quietly on July 4th. His last wish was that his epitaph might be, "Here lies Henry Lawrence, who tried to do his duty."

While the siege of Lucknow was being maintained with the utmost heroism, Cawnpore was the scene of great horrors. The city is on the south of the Ganges, about 50 miles from Lucknow. The garrison was under the command of Sir Hugh Wheeler, who had with him about 1000 men, women, and children. With these he retired to the hospital, which was surrounded by a mud wall.

Now Wheeler thought he might trust a native prince, Nana Sahib, who was believed to be faithful to the British; and to him he therefore appealed for help. Nana Sahib, however, proved a traitor, and put himself at the head of the mutineers. Every day some of the brave defenders fell before the assaults of the enemy, and the women and children crouched for shelter under the hospital wall, exposed to the full glare of the Indian sun.

The miserable garrison died off like flies. There was but one well from which to obtain water, and



LUCKNOW.

this could only be got at the cost of blood, for the way to the well was fully exposed to the fire of the N.H.R.S.

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rebels. The survivors still held on, and were prepared to fight to the last. Nana Sahib, finding he could not take the hospital by storm, offered to allow the garrison to depart in safety.

This offer was accepted, and the survivors were placed in boats which were to convey them to Allaha-bad. No sooner were the boats started on their journey than rebel soldiers, placed on the banks, shot at the helpless fugitives. The slaughter was appalling, and only about 60 men and 150 women and children escaped this awful death. These were dragged to the bank, and after a brave resistance the men were shot, and the women and children locked up in a small house not far from the river. Then they, too, were massacred, and their mutilated bodies were thrown into the well that stood near by. Of the whole number that took refuge in Cawnpore, only four men escaped to tell the tale.

When the terrible news reached England men were filled with anger, and everybody talked of revenge. The Government strained every effort to send out reinforcements of troops. At last, after a terrible interval of agony and suspense, Delhi was captured on September 20th, but it was only effected by the loss of one of the most gallant and capable officers, for General Nicholson, who led the storming columns, paid for his bravery by the forfeit of his life.

During this period of stress and storm the English in Lucknow were holding out, but they were reduced to desperate straits. If help did not soon arrive the food would be gone, and there would be another massacre like that at Cawnpore. Day after day,

week after week, the enemy had been pouring in shot and shell. The garrison did not lose heart, and "ever upon the topmost roof our banner of England blew!"

When things were at their worst it was known that General Havelock, a conqueror in twelve battles, was near at hand with relief. He had fought his way through hosts of rebels, and his coming was announced to the starving garrison by the music of the bagpipes. Havelock saved Lucknow: but in the hour of victory he died, closing his glorious career on November 24th.

The worst was now over, although the end had not yet come. A great host of mutineers retook Cawnpore and threatened Lucknow.

Sir Colin Campbell was now Commander-in-Chief, and little by little he reconquered Northern India. Terrible punishment fell upon the mutineers, and at the close of 1857 India was again restored to peace.

One effect of the Great Mutiny was the decision of the Government to bring to an end the rule of the East India Company. Accordingly, in 1858 an Act was passed handing over the entire control of India to



HAVELOCK.

the Crown. Queen Victoria was proclaimed Sovereign of India at Allahabad on November, 1858, and promised that all her subjects in India should have equal justice. It was not till 1877 that Queen Victoria was declared Empress of India, and that step was taken by the advice of her trusted Prime Minister, Lord Beaconsfield.

Every effort is made to govern India with wisdom and justice; but Englishmen have a great responsibility in ruling this vast dependency. Is it not passing strange that a few thousand English soldiers should be able to keep in order more than 300,000,000 natives? Yet such is the case, and we shall probably continue to succeed in this tremendous task if we study the wishes of the natives and rule in truth and equity

CHAPTER XLVIII.

ENGLAND AND EGYPT, OR GORDON AND KITCHENER.

THE earlier years of Victoria's reign were devoted to the settlement of colonial questions in Australia, America, and Asia, while the later years were occupied mainly with troubles in Africa. Indeed, the last quarter of the nineteenth century witnessed a scramble among the European nations for portions of the Dark Continent. England, Germany, France, Italy, Portugal, and Belgium were all engaged in extending their dominions, and although England did not get the

largest portion, it is probable that she gained the richest and most fertile districts in Africa.

England had interests in Egypt, on the West Coast, on the East Coast, and also in South Africa. In this and the following chapters we shall give some account of the troubles in Egypt and the Nile Valley, and of the wars in South Africa, where the English had to deal with the Zulus and the Boers.

Now, first, with regard to Egypt. For a long time the Khedive had not ruled his country well, and had borrowed large sums of money from England and France. He endeavoured to repay the loans by taxing his people very heavily. The condition of the natives was very unhappy, and as a result a rebellion broke out. This was really brought about by the action of a Pasha named Arabi, who raised an army of about 4000 Egyptian soldiers.

Egypt was in great disorder, and, as our interests in the Suez Canal were threatened, it was necessary for the English fleet to go to Egypt. The rebels, refusing to submit, Admiral Seymour bombarded the forts of Alexandria. They were soon reduced to ruins, and Sir Garnet Wolseley landed with an army and took the offensive. Wolseley had made most careful preparations, and was able to deliver a crushing blow at Tel-el-Kebir.

The enemy fled in wild confusion, and on the next day Cairo was in our hands. Arabi gave himself up, and after a trial was banished to Ceylon. The English were then preparing to leave Egypt when further troubles compelled them to remain. To the south and south-west of Egypt there stretches a great tract of country

known as the Sudan. This district was the headquarters of the slave trade, and gave its allegiance to a very remarkable man, who declared himself an inspired prophet or Mahdi.

While the troubles with Arabi were in progress, the Mahdi was gathering a large army. In June, 1882, he cut to pieces an Egyptian force of 6000 men; and in 1883 he utterly defeated a much larger army which was commanded by an English officer, Colonel Hicks. Of course these two successes were hailed as a token of the Mahdi's divine mission, and the insurrection in the Sudan spread in all directions.

Now, at various places in the Sudan there were garrisons of Egyptian troops. Expeditions for their relief were organised, but without success. At Khartum there were at least 11,000 persons, and our Government, thinking it was useless to attempt its relief, sent orders for its evacuation. It was also decided to send out a gallant and distinguished officer, General Gordon, who knew the Sudan and understood its people.

Gordon no sooner received his command than he started on his mission, and reached Khartum on February 18th, 1884. The delight of the natives was intense, for they looked upon him as their saviour. Things were in a wretched condition, but Gordon soon inspired the people with confidence and hope.

Gordon soon saw that he needed help, and sent home for speedy assistance. The British Government, however, did nothing to assist him in his hour of need. On March 23rd the Mahdi laid siege to Khartum, and henceforth Gordon was a doomed man. He had to contend with traitors within as well as with enemies

outside the walls. Again and again Gordon appealed to England for help, but each time he met with a refusal.



GORDON.

At length the indignation of the country was so great that the Gladstone Ministry were forced to send out a relief expedition under Lord Wolseley. But it

was sent too late. Wolseley did all in his power to relieve Khartum and rescue the heroic Gordon, but he was able to do neither the one nor the other. The melancholy news that Khartum had fallen on January 26th, 1885, reached London on February 3rd, and then it was known that Gordon had died at his post of duty, patiently expecting the assistance that arrived too late to be of any avail. Khartum had held out for 317 days, and, in the midst of that terrible siege, Gordon had acted like a saint and a hero. He has left a name which will stand high among the heroes of his country, and his memory is one of the priceless possessions of the British race.

When the Government heard of the fall of Khartum and the massacre of about 4000 people, orders were given to our troops to withdraw from the Sudan. It was also decided that the southern boundary of Egypt was to be fixed at the Second Nile Cataract. In 1885 the Mahdi died, and for some years to come the Sudan was left to itself.

Englishmen, however, thought of the bitter shame of the abandonment of Gordon, and they longed to recover the lost provinces, which had been handed over to the slave-traders of the Sudan. This great task was undertaken by the Salisbury Ministry, who were very fortunate in the choice of their agents.

Our representative in Egypt was Lord Cromer, and he had chosen, in 1892, Sir Herbert Kitchener as Sirdar of Egypt. It was under the Sirdar's skilful training that the Egyptian troops were drilled and eventually became a powerful army. Kitchener was a man who left nothing to chance, but did everything in a most



THE MEXICAN OF CALABOZ.

From a Photograph by Messrs. Rees & Sons, 15, Pall Mall, W.

methodical manner. In 1896 Kitchener conducted his first expedition to Dongola, and achieved a great success. It was then felt that to reach Khartum was only a question of time, and that the final goal would soon be won.



KHARTUM.

Two years passed, and in 1898 Kitchener marched on Khartum. After some fighting that city fell into the hands of the English. The Sudan was at last delivered from the curse of the slave-trade and from the misrule of the Khalifa and his followers. It was a great triumph for Kitchener, and he was raised to the

peerage as Lord Kitchener of Khartum. On the very spot where Gordon fell there now stands a college for the training and education of the Sudanese, the people for whom he gave his life.

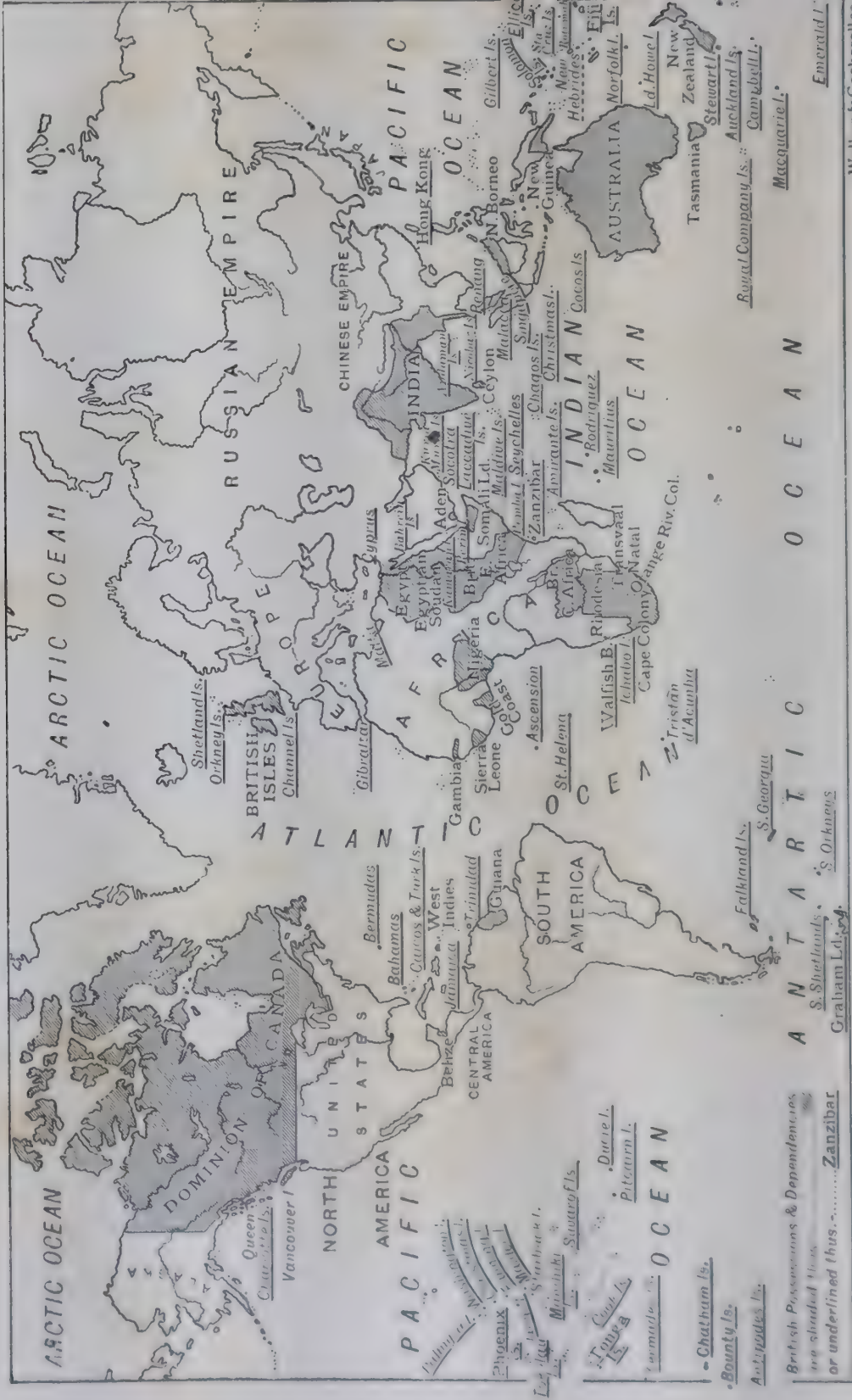
After the fall of Khartum there was some unpleasantness with France, owing to the presence of a French military expedition at Fashoda. For a time it looked as if war must result, but wiser counsels prevailed, and Major Marchand was ordered to withdraw.

Although Egypt is not a British possession yet it is under our protection; and owing to our interests in the Suez Canal, we are likely to remain in Egypt. Our presence there has been of great advantage to that country, which is now in a prosperous condition under our wise and firm rule.

CHAPTER XLIX.

ENGLAND AND SOUTH AFRICA.

WE have now to consider the relations of Great Britain with South Africa, a portion of our empire which has given us much anxiety, and which has been the scene of many grave disasters. In the previous chapters we have considered the union of the Canadian Provinces into the Dominion of Canada, and the federation of the Australian Colonies into the Commonwealth of Australia. Let us hope that in the future the various provinces of South Africa may also be federated, and that peace and prosperity may rest upon those colonies.



British Possessions & Dependencies
are shaded blue
or underlined thus Zanzibar
Graham I.

Chatham Is.
Bounty Is.
Antipodes Is.

Daniel I.
Pitcairn I.
Tonga
Samoa

AN T A R T I C
O C C E A N
S. Shetlands
S. Orkneys
Graham I.

Falkland Is.
S. George

Tristan d'Acunha
Cape Colony
Natal
Rhodesia
Transvaal
Orange Riv. Col.

Walfish B.
Island
Ascension
St. Helena

Sierra Leone
Gambia
Nigeria
Benue
Cameroon
Sierra Leone
Gambia
Nigeria
Benue
Cameroon

Aden
Socotra
Yemen
Arabia
India
China
Japan
Korea
Manchuria
Formosa
Hainan
Shanghai
Peking
Tientsin
Harbin
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RUSSIAN EMPIRE
CHINESE EMPIRE
INDIA
CHINA
JAPAN
KOREA
MANCHURIA
FORMOSA
HAINAN
SHANGHAI
PEKING
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HARBIN

BRITISH ISLES
Channel Is.
Orkney Is.
Shetland Is.

ARCTIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN

Royal Company Is.
Cambridge Is.
Auckland Is.
Stewart Is.
Tasmania
Zealand
New Zealand

LD. Howe I.
Norfolk I.
Fiji
Hebrides
New Hebrides
New Caledonia
Guinea
Sierra Leone
Sierra Leone

Sierra Leone
Gambia
Nigeria
Benue
Cameroon
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Aden
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RUSSIAN EMPIRE
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BRITISH ISLES
Channel Is.
Orkney Is.
Shetland Is.

ARCTIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN

ARCTIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN

Walker & Cockerell sc.
Emerald I.

Now, in order to understand the troubles with South Africa, we must go back to the beginning of the nineteenth century. It was in 1806 that England occupied the Cape, which had previously been in the hands of the Dutch; but it was not till 1820 that people from England began to emigrate to the Cape Colony. The colony was under the disadvantage of having fierce and warlike neighbours, the Kaffirs, on its north-eastern frontier, and from 1834 onwards many wars were waged with them.

There were also difficulties between the English and the Dutch settlers, who were known as Boers. Rather than remain under British rule the Boers made a Great Trek in 1836, and settled in the Orange River Free State. Later on other Dutch settlers crossed the border and took up their abode in the Transvaal. The independence of these two Boer states was recognised in 1852 and 1853 by the British Government.

A great rush of immigrants to Kimberley took place in 1871, owing to the discovery of diamonds. Later on, in 1884, gold was discovered on the Witwatersrand in the Transvaal. These two events have contributed largely to the subsequent troubles in South Africa. We have also to remember that the people in South Africa differ largely from those in Australia and Canada, for whereas in the latter colonies the whites are in the majority, in South Africa the native population predominates.

Some of the natives of South Africa, known as Zulus, attacked the Boers, owing to a dispute as to a strip of territory between the two countries. The English took the side of the Boers, although the Zulus were in

the right, and thus Cetewayo, the Zulu king, was defeated. Then England annexed the Transvaal Republic, and this led to a costly and disastrous war.

The Zulu monarch was ordered to disband his army. This he refused to do, and accordingly a British army of 13,000 men, under Lord Chelmsford, crossed the Tugela to enforce our demands. The expedition met with a dreadful disaster at Isandula, and the whole force might have been annihilated had it not been for the heroic defence at Rorke's Drift, where 100 men, under Lieutenants Chard and Bromhead, kept at bay, during the whole night, some thousands of the savage foe.

Lord Chelmsford was subsequently able to retrieve his disaster by an overwhelming defeat of the Zulus at Ulundi ; Cetewayo was captured, and his kingdom broken up into several sections. The Boers, having been delivered from their great enemy, now declared that they had never consented to the union with Britain. They accordingly rose in rebellion and proclaimed their country a republic.

The Boer War began in 1880, and was a most disastrous affair for our country. British troops were defeated at Laing's Nek and Ingogo, and it was then recognised that the Boers were exceedingly skilful with the use of the rifle. The worst defeat of all was at Majuba Hill, a hill overlooking the Boers' camp on the flat beyond Laing's Nek.

Sir George Colley had occupied this hill on February 26th, 1881, and early the next morning he was attacked. The Boers ascended the hill at three separate places and entirely surrounded the British troops. Sir

President Steyn of the Free State. After some deliberations the Conference broke up without producing any alteration in the situation. Our Government now sent out reinforcements of men and arms to South Africa, whereupon the two Republics sent an ultimatum demanding the withdrawal of the recently-arrived troops and the stoppage of those transports already on their way to the Cape.

Of course this ultimatum was not noticed by our Government, and on October 12th, 1899, war began by the Boers invading Natal. The campaign opened badly for our troops, for on October 19th there was a sharp battle, and General Symons was mortally wounded.

In the meantime Sir George White had arrived in Natal, and was soon at Ladysmith. The Boers, elated with their success, reached Ladysmith, and began its siege on November 2nd. On the western side the Boers were also busy, and had surrounded Kimberley and Mafeking. It was now seen that British supremacy in South Africa was in jeopardy, and that the empire was passing through a severe crisis.

The Government had appointed Sir Redvers Buller to be commander of all our forces in South Africa. He had made his plans by which to attack the Republics; but when he found Ladysmith was in peril he changed his plans, and started for the relief of that town. His first attempt was a disastrous failure, for, after a severe engagement at Colenso, Buller had to retreat, having lost eleven guns and over 1000 in killed and wounded.

Disaster had also overtaken our forces at Magersfontein and Stormberg. These three defeats happening

in one week caused a feeling of intense disappointment at home. In view of the grave emergency, Lord Roberts was at once despatched to South Africa as Commander-in-Chief, with Lord Kitchener as the Chief of his Staff. Large reinforcements of men and guns were sent out ; offers of help came from all parts of the British Empire ; and everybody felt that a supreme effort must be made to retrieve our misfortunes.

With the arrival of Lord Roberts at the Cape, the situation soon improved. Kimberley was relieved on February 13th, and, a few days after, Cronje surrendered with all his troops. It was now evident that the tide had turned, and that South Africa was safe. Buller, after several futile attempts, relieved Ladysmith, and on May 18th came the welcome news that Mafeking was safe, after a long and gallant defence, under its brave commander, Baden-Powell.

Events now moved fast. Lord Roberts continued his forward march through Bloemfontein on to Pretoria. The two Republics were once more annexed to our Empire, and on October 25th the British flag was hoisted at Pretoria. It was now thought that the war was over, and at the end of 1900 Lord Roberts left for England. For a long time, however, hostilities continued, and Lord Kitchener had to deal with a very difficult guerilla war, not only in the Republics, but also in Cape Colony.

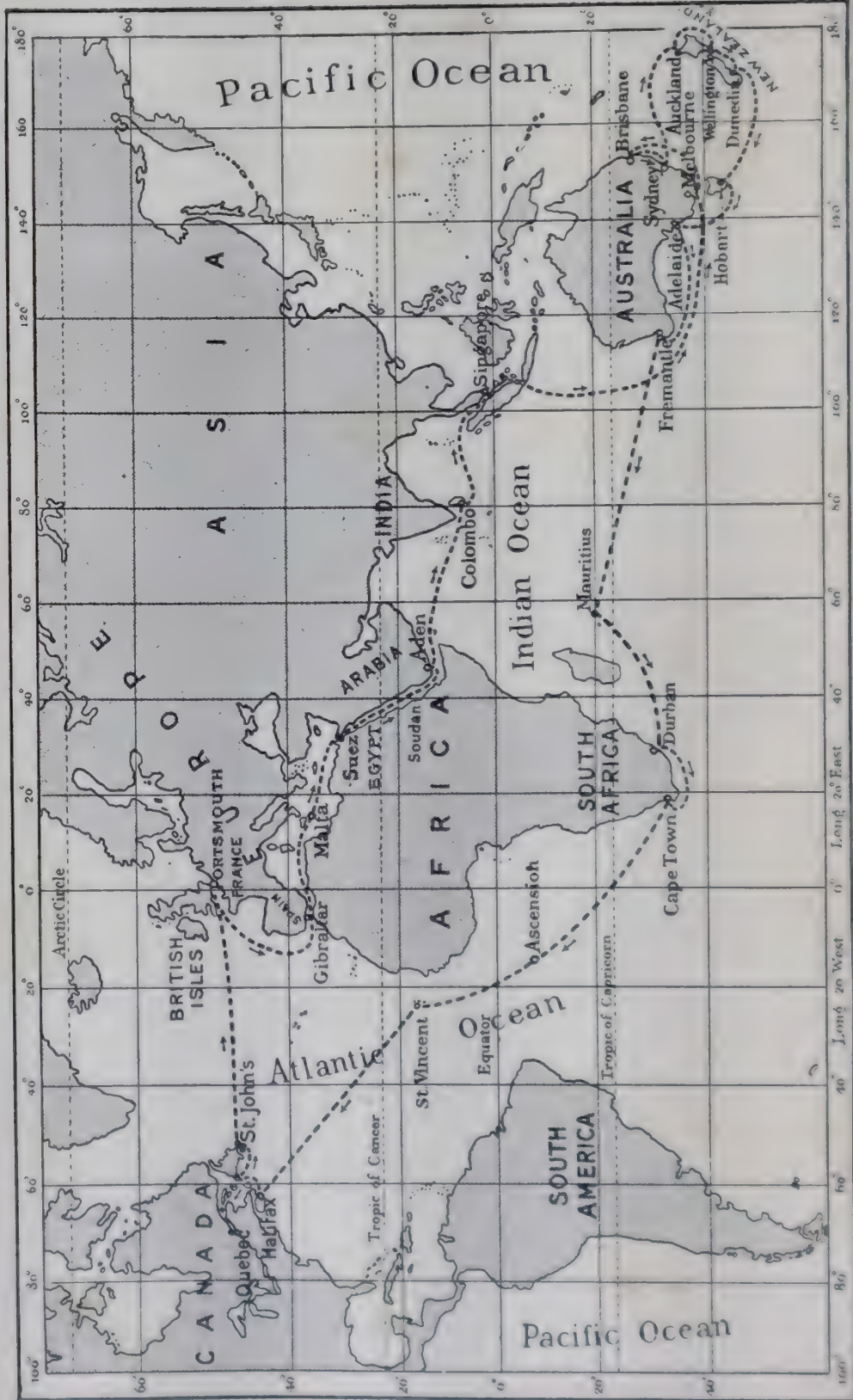
CHAPTER L.

ROUND THE EMPIRE, OR GREATER BRITAIN
IN 1901.

THE twentieth century had scarcely dawned when the whole British Empire was moved with the sad news that Queen Victoria had passed away after the longest reign in our history. For over sixty-three years Victoria had ruled over an ever-widening empire, and though her reign was clouded with many wars, and saddened with many troubles, yet her people were contented and happy. Each year seemed to add to the prosperity of her realms; and as the years rolled on Victoria grew in the love of her countless subjects.

The vacant throne was taken by Victoria's son, who as Prince of Wales had endeared himself to all ranks of society. He was proclaimed king as Edward VII., and at his first Council he promised always to walk in the footsteps of his mother, and to devote his whole strength to his kingly duties. The king published Addresses to his subjects both in the Colonies and in India, and it was quite evident that Edward VII. would maintain the power and greatness of the British Empire.

It had been the wish of Queen Victoria that her grandson, the Duke of York, should visit the Colonies, and thus show the affection of the Mother Country for her sons and daughters who were scattered all over the world. King Edward VII. determined to fulfil



this wish, and made all the necessary arrangements for his son and the Duchess of Cornwall and York to make a tour of the Colonies.

Accordingly, on March 15th, 1901, the Duke and Duchess of Cornwall and York, accompanied by the King and Queen, left London and travelled to Portsmouth. The Royal Party passed the night on board the *Ophir*, the vessel which was to carry them on their important mission. At four o'clock on the following day the *Ophir* started on her journey, accompanied by two cruisers, which acted as an escort.

After a rough voyage of four days Gibraltar was reached, and the new works at that important fortress were seen in progress. Malta, Port Said, and Aden were visited, and on April 12th the beautiful island of Ceylon came in view. The Royal Party landed at Colombo, whose palm-fringed shore and white sun-lit streets were thronged with men and women, whose dress, speech, and manners proclaimed how varied are the races that make up the British Empire.

Kandy, the ancient capital of the Singhalese, presented a strange and weird spectacle, for there the visitors saw a procession of sacred elephants, in which Buddhist priests, Singhalese Chiefs, and Devil Dancers took part. Then the chiefs made their obeisance, and their Royal Highnesses were conducted to the Temple of Buddha and shown the sacred relic—Buddha's Tooth.

The *Ophir* left Colombo and arrived at Singapore on April 21st. There the native rulers of the Malay States and Chinese merchants were presented, and some idea was gained of the wealth and resources of the Straits Settlements. At midnight on April 23rd the *Ophir*

crossed the Equator, and two days later Father Neptune went on board in order that the Duke and his suite might be made freemen of the sea, with the usual ceremonies.

On May 1st the coast of Australia was sighted, and after calling at Albany the *Ophir* made for Melbourne.



MALTA. After J. M. W. Turner.

There the Royal Party stayed many days, receiving a magnificent welcome. Besides reviewing 15,000 soldiers and sailors, the Duke opened the first Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia. This was the most important and impressing event of the whole tour, and has been already noticed in Chapter 45.

A short visit was paid to the mining city of Ballarat, and then the Duke and Duchess left for Brisbane.

I. — Chronological List of the Chief Events in British History.

Caesar's Invasions of Britain,	-	-	-	-	B.C. 55-54
Claudius in Britain,	-	-	-	-	A.D. 43
Final Conquest of Britain by Agricola,	-	-	-	-	84
Hadrian in Britain,	-	-	-	-	120
The Roman Legions leave Britain,	-	-	-	-	410
English Conquest of Britain,	-	-	-	-	449-547
Conversion of the English,	-	-	-	-	597-681
First Landing of the Danes,	-	-	-	-	789
Danish Conquest of England,	-	-	-	-	1013-1016
Battle of Senlac, or Hastings,	-	-	-	-	1066
Domesday Book,	-	-	-	-	1085
The First Crusade,	-	-	-	-	1096
Battle of Tinchebrai,	-	-	-	-	1106
Battle of the Standard,	-	-	-	-	1138
The Second Crusade,	-	-	-	-	1147
Constitutions of Clarendon,	-	-	-	-	1164
Murder of Thomas Becket,	-	-	-	-	1170
Conquest of Ireland,	-	-	-	-	1171
The Great Charter granted by John,	-	-	-	-	1215
Earl Simon's Parliament,	-	-	-	-	1265
Battle of Evesham,	-	-	-	-	1265
Wales united to England,	-	-	-	-	1282
Battle of Bannockburn,	-	-	-	-	1314
Independence of Scotland,	-	-	-	-	1328
Battle of Crecy,	-	-	-	-	1346
Battle of Poitiers,	-	-	-	-	1356
Peace of Bretigny,	-	-	-	-	1360
Revolt of Peasants,	-	-	-	-	1381

Battle of Agincourt, - - - - -	A.D. 1415
Henry V. takes Rouen, - - - - -	1419
Treaty of Troyes, - - - - -	1420
End of the Hundred Years' War, - - - - -	1453
Caxton at Westminster, - - - - -	1476
Beginning of the Reformation, - - - - -	1517
The French take Calais, - - - - -	1558
Mary of Scotland beheaded, - - - - -	1587
Philip the Second sends the Armada against England, - - - - -	1588
Gunpowder Plot, - - - - -	1605
Translation of the Bible, - - - - -	1611
Petition of Right, - - - - -	1628
Civil War begins, - - - - -	1642
Charles I. of England beheaded, - - - - -	1649
Charles II. sells Dunkirk to Louis XIV., - - - - -	1663
War between England and the United Provinces, - - - - -	1664-1667
The Plague of London, - - - - -	1665
The Great Fire of London, - - - - -	1666
The Dutch in the Thames, - - - - -	1667
Habeas Corpus Act, - - - - -	1679
Trial of the Seven Bishops, - - - - -	1688
Landing of the Prince of Orange, - - - - -	1688
Bill of Rights, - - - - -	1689
Siege of Londonderry, - - - - -	1689
Battle of Blenheim, - - - - -	1704
Union of England and Scotland, - - - - -	1707
Treaty of Utrecht, - - - - -	1713
Jacobite Rebellion in England, - - - - -	1715
South Sea Bubble, - - - - -	1720
Second Jacobite Rebellion, - - - - -	1745
Battle of Culloden, - - - - -	1746
The Spinning Jenny by Hargreaves, - - - - -	1767
Watt's Steam Engine, - - - - -	1768
Independence of Ireland, - - - - -	1782
Wars of the French Revolution, - - - - -	1793-1815
Battle of the Nile, - - - - -	1798
Union of Great Britain and Ireland, - - - - -	1801

Napoleon Bonaparte, Emperor of the French,	A.D. 1804
Battle of Trafalgar,	1805
The Peninsular War,	1808-1814
George Stephenson's Locomotive,	1814
Abdication of Napoleon Bonaparte,	1814
Battle of Waterloo,	1815
Catholic Emancipation Act,	1829
Opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway,	1830
The First Reform Bill,	1832
Abolition of Slavery,	1833
Penny Post,	1840
Repeal of the Corn Laws,	1846
The Crimean War,	1854-1856
Second Reform Bill,	1867
Education Act,	1870
Third Reform Bill,	1884
Accession of Edward VII.,	1901

II. - Chronological List of the Chief Events in the Expansion of the British Empire.

Columbus discovers America,	A.D. 1492
John Cabot discovers Newfoundland,	1497
Vasco da Gama reaches India,	1498
First Voyage of John Hawkins to the West Indies,	1562
Drake returns from his Voyage Round the World,	1580
Gilbert takes possession of Newfoundland,	1583
Raleigh founds Virginia,	1585
Charter of the East India Company,	1600
Settlement of Plymouth by the Pilgrim Fathers,	1620
First Voyage of Tasman to Australia,	1642
Navigation Act,	1651
Jamaica conquered,	1655
Bombay ceded by Portugal,	1661

Calcutta founded,	-	-	-	-	-	-	A.D. 1696
Dupleix made Governor of Pondicherry,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1741
War with France in America and India,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1744
Victory of Plassey,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1757
Capture of Quebec,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1759
Submission of Canada,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1760
Stamp Act of Grenville,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1765
Captain Cook proclaims British occupation of Australia,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1770
Warren Hastings Governor of Bengal,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1772
Declaration of Independence by America,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1776
Surrender of Cornwallis,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1781
Captain Philip lands at Botany Bay,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1788
England first seizes the Cape,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1795
England finally occupies the Cape,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1806
Cession of Cape Colony by Treaty of Paris,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1814
The Great Trek in South Africa,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1836
Canada Reunion Act,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1840
Independence of Transvaal recognised,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1852
Independence of Orange Free State recognised,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1854
The Sepoy Mutiny	-	-	-	-	-	-	1857
The Queen proclaimed Sovereign of India,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1858
Dominion of Canada,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1867
Opening of Suez Canal,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1869
Transvaal annexed by Great Britain,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1877
Proclamation of the Queen as Empress of India,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1877
Battle of Majuba Hill. Independence restored to the Transvaal,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1881
Battle of Tel-el-Kebir, and British occupation of Egypt,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1882
Death of Gordon,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1885
British South Africa Company's Charter granted,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1889
Soudan recovered by Lord Kitchener,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1898
War with the Transvaal and the Orange Free State,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1899
The Transvaal and Orange River Colonies annexed,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1900
Federation of the Australian Colonies,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1900
Visit of Prince and Princess of Wales to the British Colonies,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1901
Opening of the Australian Parliament,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1901

III.—Chronological Table of the Sovereigns of England.

EARLY ENGLISH KINGS—							DATE OF ACCESSION.
Egbert,	-	-	-	-	-	-	A.D. 800
Ethelwulf,	-	-	-	-	-	-	836
Ethelbald,	-	-	-	-	-	-	857
Ethelbert,	-	-	-	-	-	-	860
Ethelred I.,	-	-	-	-	-	-	866
Alfred,	-	-	-	-	-	-	871
Edward the Elder,	-	-	-	-	-	-	901
Athelstan,	-	-	-	-	-	-	925
Edmund I.,	-	-	-	-	-	-	941
Eadred,	-	-	-	-	-	-	946
Edwy,	-	-	-	-	-	-	955
Edgar,	-	-	-	-	-	-	959
Edward the Martyr,	-	-	-	-	-	-	975
Ethelred the Unready,	-	-	-	-	-	-	978
Edmund II., Ironside,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1017
DANISH KINGS OF ENGLAND—							
Canute,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1017
Harold,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1036
Hardicanute,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1039-1041
EARLY ENGLISH KINGS RESTORED—							
Edward the Confessor,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1041
Harold II.,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1066
THE HOUSE OF NORMANDY—							
William I.,	-	-	-	-	-	-	A.D. 1066
William II.,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1087
Henry I.,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1100
Stephen,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1135
THE HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET—							
Henry II.,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1154
Richard I.,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1189
John,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1199
Henry III.,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1216
Edward I.,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1272
Edward II.,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1307
Edward III.,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1327
Richard II.,	-	-	-	-	-	-	1377

THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER—

DATE OF
ACCESSION.

Henry IV.,	-	-	-	-	-	A.D. 1399
Henry V.,	-	-	-	-	-	1413
Henry VI.,	-	-	-	-	-	1422

THE HOUSE OF YORK—

Edward IV.,	-	-	-	-	-	1461
Edward V.,	-	-	-	-	-	1483
Richard III.,	-	-	-	-	-	1483

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR—

Henry VII.,	-	-	-	-	-	1485
Henry VIII.,	-	-	-	-	-	1509
Edward VI.,	-	-	-	-	-	1547
Mary,	-	-	-	-	-	1553
Elizabeth,	-	-	-	-	-	1558

THE HOUSE OF STUART—

James I.,	-	-	-	-	-	1603
Charles I.,	-	-	-	-	-	1625

Commonwealth—

Commonwealth declared,	-	-	-	-	-	1649
Oliver Cromwell, Lord Protector,	-	-	-	-	-	1653
Richard Cromwell, Lord Protector,	-	-	-	-	-	1658

Charles II.,	-	-	-	-	-	1660
James II.,	-	-	-	-	-	1685
William III.,	}	-	-	-	-	1689
Mary II.,		-	-	-	-	
Anne,	-	-	-	-	-	1702

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER—

George I.,	-	-	-	-	-	1714
George II.,	-	-	-	-	-	1727
George III.,	-	-	-	-	-	1760
George IV.,	-	-	-	-	-	1820
William IV.,	-	-	-	-	-	1830
Victoria,	-	-	-	-	-	1837
Edward VII.,	-	-	-	-	-	1901

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